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REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THERE is still but one subject of domestic interest—the general election. With varying but unequal fortune, the contest has been waged during the past week, and now nears its close. The Liberals have had their losses, conspicuous amongst which is that of the seat for the University of Oxford. But these have been far more than compensated by their gains, which increase as we write, and which have already shown the hollowness of the cry of a "Conservative reaction," and have secured for the Government a substantial working majority in the new Parliament. We have, however, in other articles, discussed so fully the results and the principal incidents of the electoral struggle, that it is only necessary for us to repeat here the congratulations which we last week offered to our fellow Liberals upon the decisive augmentation in the number of their representatives, and the consequent increase of their power in the House of Commons.

In the form of a report, addressed by General Della Marmora to the King of Italy, we have now received a full and authentic narrative of the recent negotiations between Victor Emmanuel and the Pope. It seems, as might have been expected, that his Majesty has acted throughout in full and loyal concert with his constitutional advisers. The Government were unanimously of opinion that the autograph letter addressed by Pius IX. to the King in March last should be answered in the spirit in which it was apparently sent; and that negotiations should at once be commenced upon the three points to which the Holy Father directed attention:—the return of the bishops absent from their sees; the filling up of the vacant dioceses; and the admission of the titular ecclesiastics already nominated in some provinces of the kingdom without the consent of the Government. In conformity with this decision Signor Vegezzi was despatched to Rome, with instructions which confined him to the discussion of the religious or ecclesiastical questions at issue, and forbade him to admit any pretensions implying the negation *de facto* of the existence of the kingdom of Italy. He was authorized to propose that those bishops should be restored to their sees whose return would no longer disturb public tranquillity, and who would undertake to observe the laws of the State and cause them to be observed by their clergy; that amongst the vacant sees those only should be filled up which it might be determined to maintain on the definitive diocesan arrangement of the kingdom; that the presentation of the prelates should be made by the King with the preliminary assent of the Holy See; and that this presentation should be stated in the act of appointment, and in the bulls which

would be submitted to the Royal exequatur. On his first visit to Rome in April Signor Vegezzi was received by the Pope in a friendly and conciliatory manner which gave rise to the most sanguine hopes as to the ultimate result of the negotiations. It was, however, necessary for him to return to Florence in order to receive fuller instructions on certain points; and when he next made his appearance at the Papal Court in June he found "that some hostile influence had traversed the favourable progress of the negotiations." The Italian Government refrain from prying into the nature of that influence. They content themselves with recording the fact that at this second stage of the negotiations the Papal Government declined either to admit the Royal exequatur or to allow the bishops to take an oath of allegiance to the King. It was plainly impossible for General Della Marmora and his colleagues to give way on either point without fatally compromising the right and the dignity of the kingdom of Italy, and without arousing the vehement indignation of their countrymen, who regarded with extreme suspicion any diplomatic intercourse with the Holy See. As they point out in the document to which we are referring, the constitution absolutely requires that pontifical appointments should be subject to the Royal exequatur; and as to the oath of allegiance, they argue with irresistible force that as it is not only imposed by the law of Italy, but is required to be taken by prelates in almost all Catholic States, any indulgence would have been attributed to political motives rather than to Liberal sentiments. No country which had any respect for itself could consent to its high ecclesiastical offices being filled by men who ostentatiously withdrew themselves from allegiance to the Sovereign, and thus offered a permanent protest against the legitimacy of his authority. The Papal Government was, however, as firm as that of Italy on both these points. They would consent to nothing which did not involve the humiliation of the power with which they professed to treat. They would not grant to its Sovereign the rights and powers which they cheerfully concede to other Roman Catholic monarchs. When this was once ascertained to be their fixed resolution nothing remained but to break off the negotiations, and to recall Signor Vegezzi from Rome. This was accordingly done, and the only result which remains is a striking and complete demonstration of the impossibility of reconciliation or compromise between Italy and the Holy See. It cannot, however, be doubted that this demonstration will materially strengthen the hands of Victor Emmanuel. And it is probably a perception of this fact which encourages General Della Marmora to conclude his report with a significant reference to the day—perhaps not far distant—"when the so much desired separation of Church and State will bring with it the complete separation

of religious and spiritual from political interests, to the common benefit of both Church and State."

The King of Prussia has surmounted in his own way the difficulty which arose from the refusal of the Chamber of Deputies to vote the Budget proposed by Herr von Bismark and his colleagues. His Majesty has simply taken into his own hands the power vested in Parliament by the Constitution. A Royal decree declares that the Budget of 1865, as framed by the Ministry, shall be the financial law for the current year. Such an act would be indefensible by any sort of reasoning to which the citizens of free countries are accustomed. But his Majesty is not content to stop there. If the Budget was not voted by the Chamber it had at least been submitted to them, and hence it had thus contracted some slight trace of a Constitutional taint. To mark his entire independence of Legislative control—to show how thoroughly he regards himself as master of the purses of his subjects, the King has therefore added a new and rather considerable item to the estimates. The Minister of Marine has received from his Majesty a grant of 500,000 thalers over and above his demand. This is to be appropriated to the construction of rifle cannon for the navy, and its expenditure is to be the subject of a special report to the King at the end of the year. It is impossible to conceive a more insolent defiance given by monarch to people. Up to the present time the Prussian Government has had the decency to invent some excuses—bad ones no doubt—for their violation of the Constitution. But it seems to be now felt that it is wholly unnecessary to take this trouble. The people have submitted to so much that they are hardly likely to resent any insult or injury which may be offered to them. We are sorry to think that his Majesty and his advisers are probably right; but if this last stroke of power be taken quietly, it will henceforth be absurd to talk of Prussia as anything but a despotically-governed country, in the fullest sense of the expression. Austria is certainly far from being a model Constitutional State; but its Parliament does nevertheless possess a real power over the national expenditure. A practical proof of this is afforded by the fact that the Lower House—in opposition both to the Government and to the Upper House—has just enforced an important reduction in the Secret Service Fund.

Notwithstanding the collapse of the Tae-ping rebellion, the condition of China is still very unsatisfactory. In the absence of other rebels, the Imperial troops have taken to mutiny. Their pay has been allowed to fall seriously into arrear, and they have resolved upon reimbursing themselves by ravaging the country. More than one band several thousand strong is traversing China, laying waste everything before them, and apparently meeting with little or no effectual resistance, except from English or French forces. The remnants of the Tae-ping horde are still in arms in the northern provinces; and, according to the late accounts, they were once more gaining ground upon the Imperialist forces. In the meantime, a leader of some note, named Mao Pei-lin, is said to be organizing a rebellion in Shantung, on a surer footing than even that which the Mahomedans are now prosecuting in that and the neighbouring provinces. Altogether, the prospect is one of the most alarming character. Each of the facts we have mentioned may be comparatively unimportant in itself; but taken together, they indicate a weakness in the Central Government and a general disorganization of the social system, which forbid us to hope for the speedy restoration of tranquillity in the Celestial Empire.

The news from New Zealand is on one point rather more favourable than that which reached us by the previous mail. There seems some ground for believing that the terrible and disgusting outbreak of fanaticism amongst the natives on the east coast has received a great check, and is declining almost as rapidly as it rose. It is still more satisfactory to know that this result is due in a great measure to the intervention of other natives. On the other hand, it is clear that little or no progress is made towards reducing to submission the Maories who are in arms against us. A considerable body still remains unsubdued in the Taranaki district, and after an indecisive campaign our troops have retired into winter quarters. It is not surprising that under these circumstances there should be a growing discontent with the mode in which General Cameron has conducted and is conducting the war. He may be an able officer in regular military operations, but he

certainly does not seem to possess the dash and vigour requisite in a contest with savages. Moreover, he is understood to be disgusted with the service in which he is engaged, and more than half disposed to doubt the justice of the cause he is supporting. When we add that he and Governor Grey are evidently on the worst terms, no one can wonder that little or nothing is done, and that the colonists are growing daily more and more weary of a system under which they are prevented from dealing with their enemies in the way they deem most likely to be crowned with success. For our own part we hear with undisguised pleasure that both the Colonial Government and their constituents are anxious for the withdrawal of the English troops at the earliest possible moment. The experiment of maintaining tranquillity in New Zealand by a regular army, under the command of a general and at the disposal of a governor sent out from this country, has failed so signally that it is at least worth trying whether the colonists cannot, as they allege, do the work better for themselves. The Imperial finances will thus be relieved from a heavy burden; and, so far as we can judge, there does not appear any probability of the natives being dealt with more harshly and unjustly than they have hitherto been.

Notwithstanding the diminution of expenditure consequent upon the close of the civil war, it is certain that, at the close of the current fiscal year there will be an enormous deficit in the United States, to be made good by borrowing in some form or other. According to our calculation, which apparently rests upon sufficient data, the expenses for the twelve months ending June 30, 1856 will be not less than 700 million dollars, while the receipts will barely reach 300 millions. These figures are, taken by themselves, sufficiently alarming; but, when we recollect the manner in which the Northern States have surmounted the financial difficulties of the last four years, we cannot suppose that the restored Union will be seriously embarrassed even by the large deficit we have mentioned. Every mail adds to the proof that the country is rapidly becoming tranquil, and settling down into a normal condition of peace. The Southern States appear satisfied to accept the decision of the war, to which they appealed. They have been beaten; they do not seek to conceal this from themselves, or to ignore the consequences which defeat involves. They are frankly desirous to efface the traces of civil strife; and are willing and ready to conform to the new condition of things. There is scarcely any trace of the sullen and obstinate resentment with which a conquered people often meets the advances of its conquerors; and undoubtedly the work of reconstructing the Union is proving far easier than any one could or did anticipate. President Johnson continues to bear himself with generosity and moderation; and it would be unfair not to acknowledge that his policy has contributed materially to the satisfactory results which have been attained. South Carolina has been "reconstructed" since we last wrote, and Florida is now the only state awaiting reorganization. Clemency is still more than ever the order of the day, and even Mr. Davis himself is in no great danger of forfeiting his life. We dare say that by this time Mr. Johnson is extremely sorry that he was ever arrested. At all events, the Government do not seem to know what to do with him. If they had any serious idea of hanging him, they would have brought him to trial long before this. A confinement of a few months duration is probably the worst that he has to look forward to. The wretches who were convicted of complicity in the plot for assassinating President Lincoln and Mr. Seward have suffered the appropriate punishment of their crime. No one can say a word against the justice of their sentence, and none will be less disposed to do so than those who sympathize with the late Confederacy. They seem to have been very ordinary criminals; nor could the most perverted mind surround them or their deaths with any halo of romance or heroism.

MR. GLADSTONE IN SOUTH LANCASHIRE.

THE loss of the University of Oxford bids fair to be the gain of the people of England. Unconsciously perhaps to himself, his love for "that great, that ancient, that noble institution," has warped and twisted Mr. Gladstone's mind, and has rendered his steps vacillating and uncertain. In the eloquent speech which he delivered at Liverpool, he told his audience that it had been his ardent desire and his earnest

labour to unite that which is represented by Oxford and that which is represented by Lancashire; to establish and maintain a harmony between the past of England and the future that is in store for her. No greater or worthier object could be set before him by any statesman; but its pursuit is full of peril. In seeking to reconcile and combine two contrasted lines of thought and feeling, a man is very apt to halt between them; to take them up and to drop them by turns; to pass from one to the other rather than to fuse them together. To himself his career may indeed look simple and consistent, but to others it bears a very different appearance. They do not possess the key to the puzzle; nor have they any map of the intellectual maze, in which a highly-cultivated, ingenious, and subtle mind like that of the Chancellor of the Exchequer can wander with ease and pleasure. They see therefore only inconsistency and feebleness, if not dishonesty, in what are really the strenuous efforts of a powerful intellect and a noble nature, to realize wide and generous views of life, and to do justice to broad and many-sided sympathies. The tendency to misinterpret and misunderstand such a man is materially increased when he occupies a position in which his interest seems to bias or restrain his judgment. So long as Mr. Gladstone represented the University, people who could not fully comprehend him had an easy way of explaining anything that perplexed them. The necessity or expediency of keeping his seat, at any rate was supposed to account for any leaning towards Conservatism or any marks of attachment to the Church. And thus it has come to pass that his sincerity has been doubted and his disinterestedness questioned. Now that Oxford has cast him off, he will no longer be open to such imputations. If his course should still seem devious and his conduct occasionally perplexing, some other explanation must be found than the coarse and commonplace one to which we have referred. But, if we may judge from the addresses which he has delivered during the last few days, no explanation will be necessary. It is impossible for anything to be more frank and outspoken, more direct in expression, or more uncompromisingly Liberal in tone. Conservative as Mr. Gladstone is, in the best sense of that word, it is clear that he has at last abandoned himself freely and unreservedly to the conviction that the best and the abiding interests of the country can only be promoted and secured by a policy of progress and of trust in the people. Henceforth, although he may not give up his idea of reconciling the past with the present and the future, he will set about the work in a larger and more confiding spirit. He will no longer be tempted to cling to old forms which have lost their vitality or to ancient institutions from which the strength has departed. He will see clearly that the past can only be really harmonized with the present, when it ceases to be an obstacle to the free development of the national life. His views and opinions will necessarily alter in some degree with the change in the "stand-point" from which he surveys public affairs.

Nothing certainly can be broader and more unequivocal than the principles which he enunciated at Liverpool and Manchester. Of the Church he spoke in terms of the most affectionate attachment; but he did not hesitate to go the full length of those who insist that she must dispense with all extraneous aid and rely simply upon her virtues and her works. "If the Church of England," said the right hon. gentleman, "is to live amongst us she must flourish, and she must grow, and God grant that she may do so, by making herself beneficially known in the discharge of her Apostolic offices, by the faithful custody of the word which she has received, by making her ministration the friend and consoler of every man in every rank of life, by causing herself to be felt by each one of you in those actions wherein her assistance can be available." Well and rightly did he follow up this eloquent and beautiful description of the true strength and the sound policy of the Church, by denouncing the misguided folly of those who seek to promote the interests of the Establishment by maintaining odious stigmas upon Dissenters and Roman Catholics. The use of such weapons is fruitful of nothing but defeat and disaster to any institution on whose behalf they are employed, and Mr. Gladstone at least will have none of them. With regard to Parliamentary Reform, his utterance was not less clear and bold. His position as a member of the Government of course forbade him to indicate the precise length to which he will go on the particular measure which he is disposed to favour. But he bore testimony, with an emphasis and heartiness which showed how deeply he was in earnest, to the claims of the working classes to an extension of the franchise. He did not, indeed, on this point, add anything to the opinions expressed in his celebrated speech on Mr. Baines's bill; but on another part of the subject his remarks have a significance which

cannot be overlooked. Recalling the manner in which successive Governments have trifled with the question—taking it up when it was forced upon them, and laying it aside as soon as they could escape from their pledges—Mr. Gladstone did not shrink from saying, as we and others have often said before, that such conduct was attended with "loss of credit, loss of dignity, loss of confidence in the powers and institutions of the country in their relation to the mind of the nation at large." He at least will be no party to anything of the kind in future. If he gives his assent to the introduction of a Reform Bill, he will do his best to pass it. Whether the measure be a large or a small one, may, and indeed must, depend in a great measure on circumstances; the great thing is that it should be honestly meant, and steadfastly supported by a Government that is willing to stake office upon carrying it. Those who have lately put themselves forward as our leaders have not been willing to run this risk; but in Mr. Gladstone we have a man who cares little for office or power except as the means to an end, and would willingly lose either if they did not enable him to give effect to his convictions. Long marked out as the future leader of Parliamentary reforms, Mr. Gladstone may now almost be said to have entered upon the performance of his functions.

The polemical portions of the right hon. gentleman's speech—although intrinsically less important than those which dealt with principles—have naturally attracted the greatest attention at the present time. We are all in a more or less controversial mood just now; and even if it do not matter very much whether Mr. Disraeli's sophisms are or are not trampled in the dust, we cannot help looking on with pleasure, while the process is performed by a master of the art. Never indeed did any one more richly deserve the treatment he has received, than did the right hon. member for Bucks. Since the days when Sir R. Peel caught the Whigs bathing, and stole their clothes, there has been no such audacious attempt at appropriating the measures of political antagonists, as he perpetrated in his recent speech at Aylesbury. As we read it, we could hardly trust our own memory; for it seemed impossible that, if things had happened as we fancied, any gentleman sitting on the front Opposition bench could have had the hardihood to claim credit for his party on account of the commercial treaty with France, the repeal of the paper-duties, or the reduction of expenditure. Such hardihood is, however, Mr. Disraeli's—and it has met the exposure which it deserved. Nothing could be more amusing, but at the same time more cutting, than Mr. Gladstone's picture of the Conservative leader endeavouring to negotiate a commercial treaty which should carry out free-trade in the abstract while protecting every important English interest in the concrete. Nor could anything be more complete than his exposure of the men who delude the farmers into a belief that they are devoted malt-tax repealers, although they could not purchase the desired remission of duty, either by maintaining the income-tax, or by keeping the tea-duty at its former amount. There are, however, topics on which one only needs to be reminded of the truth to recognise it at once. When Mr. Disraeli claims credit for bringing about the repeal of the paper-duty, the impudence of the demand is manifest, as soon as we recollect that, from first to last—at every stage and on every opportunity—he and his followers opposed the great measure when brought forward by the Government. But it is not so easy to detect the fallacy of the assertion that the present Chancellor of the Exchequer and his colleagues raised the expenditure from £65,000,000 in 1858-9 to £73,000,000 in 1860, and that therefore, although they have since reduced it to £66,000,000, it is yet above the level at which it was left by Lord Derby's last administration. Mr. Gladstone, however, showed in the clearest manner that there is not a particle more foundation for this statement than for any of the others in which Mr. Disraeli's tastes as a writer of fiction have led him to indulge. When the present Government entered office the estimates of the year were fixed, and three months' expenditure had already gone on at the rate of £69,000,000 per annum. As to the expenditure of 1863, that was due entirely to the Chinese war, arising out of the disaster at the mouth of the Peiho, while Lord Malmesbury was in office, or, at any rate, before Lord Palmerston or Earl Russell had been able to take any steps in reference to China. With regard to that subsequent reduction of expenditure which we are told has been forced upon the Government by the Opposition, Mr. Gladstone asks—and he can ask triumphantly—what motion for retrenchment has ever proceeded from the Conservative benches? Motions in favour of increasing the national outlay in all directions—these have been by the dozen; but not one in a

contrary sense. Perhaps, indeed, we shall be told that Mr. Disraeli supported Mr. Stansfeld's resolution, and made a strong speech about "bloated armaments." But who is there so ignorant as not to know that the Conservatives were disgusted beyond measure at this step on the part of their leader, which they rightly regarded as a dishonest device for putting the Government into a minority by means of a coalition with the advanced Liberals. It is not by such tricks and dodges as this—whatever Mr. Disraeli may think—that either a statesman or a party will gain the confidence, or delude the plain sense of the English people. Let the right hon. gentleman argue as he will, the plain broad fact remains as Mr. Gladstone pointed out in one of his most eloquent passages—that every measure which has for the last thirty years tended to make the English people freer, happier, more prosperous, more united, and more loyal, has been the work of the Liberal party, and has been passed in spite of the most strenuous Tory resistance. Common sense would dictate a steady, moderate, but unfaltering and earnest prosecution of the same policy—the policy of justice to the people and confidence in them. Against this the Tories set their faces now, as they have ever done; while the Whigs, who have in their day performed good service, faint and grow weary on the way. But in Mr. Gladstone we have a statesman who sees in past triumphs an incitement to future labours. To him our recent history does not suggest as its moral that we should "rest and be thankful," but that we should go on and be hopeful. And it is because his splendid talents and his brilliant eloquence are united to this firm faith in the people, and this earnest longing for progress and improvement—that he is already in reality, as he probably will soon be in name, the chosen and trusted leader of the Liberal party of England.

PROGRESS OF THE ELECTIONS.

A GREAT change has come over party fortunes during the past week. The balance of Liberal gains, which stood at a doubtful half-dozen on the returns of the English boroughs, have by the county elections, in which we have to reckon the return of Mr. Gladstone for South Lancashire, and by the issue of contests in Scotland and Ireland, been raised to a reliable score. Few, save enthusiasts, looked for such a result as this, and it has taken by surprise the longest heads in all parties alike. In many instances, indeed, it has followed on a sudden assault, and the Liberal party in a county, excluded since the Reform Bill from any share in the representation so thoroughly that it has never dared even to risk a contest, has found itself, on an impromptu effort, to form really the majority. In the Scottish counties this has been peculiarly the case. They were the sole refuge of Toryism in that part of the country, for there is no Conservative borough north of the Tweed, and even the counties were already equally divided between the rivals. But no less than three of these, with a probability, from a double return, of a fourth, have already been wrenched from Tory hands. Half a dozen more county seats have been gained in England and Wales, two or three in Ireland, while in no place has even one been lost to the Liberal side. The sum of success is, however, larger practically than it seems even in figures. There are several places in which doubtful or unreliable Whigs have been replaced by decided Liberals; others in which moderate Liberals have given way before more "advanced men." The *Times*, indeed, arguing for Lord Palmerston and inaction, declares daily that the "advanced party" have lost. But it does not back the assertion with either names or figures, and we may take as more impartial and better informed the statement of Mr. Disraeli, that Mr. Bright will in the new Parliament no longer stand isolated, but will be surrounded by a band who will be formidable from numbers as well as from energy. As regards his own party indeed, we must read Mr. Disraeli's assertion with the same grain of allowance as we make in regard to the assurances of the *Times* respecting Lord Palmerston's majority. The Conservative Chief declares that he misses from his ranks only the 15 poltroons who on questions of confidence always deserted to Government, and that, when the petitions have been decided, he will not have a strength less practically than that which he led before the dissolution. But then he places that strength at least at something under 300, and a minority of 300, all told, gives a working majority to his opponents of 60 votes.

The increase of Liberal majority being thus decisive, two questions become interesting. The first is, What does that increase arise from and mean? the second is, What will it effect? There are certain indications which will help us to answer the first, and through it, the second. If it had arisen

from and meant mere confidence in Lord Palmerston's personal policy, there would have been no occasion for the conflict which has given such a result. That policy was nowhere attacked from the Conservative side. All that the Tory leaders insisted on was, that that policy was really theirs. They proved that it was nothing but conservative of all our institutions, and that they themselves had been as ready as their opponents to carry out the Free-trade policy which the nation long ago adopted. So then there was no distinction between a Conservative and a Palmerstonian, and no conceivable reason why a Palmerstonian should oust a Conservative. But the battle has, on the Liberal side, been fought under a very different standard. Everywhere the cry has been, not "Palmerston and the Past," but "Gladstone and the Future." The absolute reticence on the question of Reform which marked the Premier's address and speech, has been utterly disregarded by his present lieutenant and by every one of his followers. Mr. Gladstone, in his first permitted utterance, impeached the Ministerial breach of faith on this question, while he as plainly intimated that on questions of economical administration, he hoped for better support from his constituents than he had received from his colleagues. And no Liberal candidate has ventured anywhere to present himself, who has not dealt with Reform as an inevitable and a vital question. It is then on this question, above all, that the contest has turned. It is because the counties have seen, as before the last Reform Bill they saw, that it must be faced and settled, because they saw that Lord Derby and Lord Palmerston were both unwilling to face it, but that the Liberal party stood on this question on a broad ground of distinction from the Conservative party, that they have returned so many Liberals in place of Conservatives. And this fact marks a very serious change in public opinion on the subject. In boroughs, where party conflicts have kept up party excitement and animosity, the change in public opinion is but slightly marked. But in the slow and sleepy counties, undisturbed in repose for so many years, there has made silent progress the conviction that we cannot, dare not, and ought not to remain as we are, and thus, almost everywhere that a bold Liberal has claimed their support, they have proved that their feeling is turning to the necessity of carrying truly Liberal measures.

What, then, will be the issue? Will there be again a Ministry which will willingly let a minority frighten it into oblivion of its principles. Shall we again have Queen's speeches, recommending to Parliament consideration of a question which Parliament has secretly resolved it will not consider? Shall we have a repetition of the policy which declares that no Government measure can be carried, and that no independent member should take the question out of the hands of Government, that a bill dealing with the whole subject is too large to be considered, and that bills dealing with separate parts ought to be rejected because they are not comprehensive? Shall we again have a Government which proposes no reform of its own, which cannot be defeated because it never makes a proposition, but which permits its supporters to make their seats safe and redeem their pledges by voting for reforms which, not being supported by the influence and authority of the Government, have no chance of being carried?

There has been during the week a correspondence published between two members of the Reform Club, which so usefully illustrates this system that we may here refer to it. Mr. Caird, late member for the Stirling boroughs, formerly *Times* Commissioner to inquire into the state of English agriculture, and before that a leading tenant farmer in Wigtonshire, was, immediately before the dissolution, appointed Inclosure Commissioner in room of the late Mr. Wingrove Cooke. The appointment was a very proper one, for Mr. Caird was well qualified for the post. But it was so timed that the vacancy in the Stirling representation was announced only on the day of the dissolution, and Mr. Lawrence Oliphant had, two days before, received secret information of the fact, and had gone down to stand for the borough as a supporter of Government. Thereupon, Mr. James Aytoun, a gentleman of family in the neighbourhood, and who twenty years ago contested the burghs, issued an address to the electors, urging them to exact a pledge from their new member to give no party support to a government which did not make a Reform Bill a Cabinet question, declaring that otherwise they would only see a repetition of the game played by Mr. Caird, who, as an "advanced Liberal," had promised support to every measure of Reform, had kept his promises, and yet had ended in betraying Reform by supporting a government which had abandoned it, and who had now received the reward of such support. Mr. Caird indignantly replied that he had voted for every

Reform measure, whether brought in by Government or by private members, had once proposed a Reform Bill of his own, had often voted against Government, and had every year received the thanks of his constituents. But his critic was not to be thus shaken off. Mr. Aytoun retorted that there was a perfectly understood compact between Government and its "independent" supporters that, provided on critical divisions they vote for the Ministry, they should be allowed to vote on all Reform measures as they liked,—that thus the carrying of a Reform measure was made impracticable because always defeated by the combination of Tory and Conservative-Liberal votes,—that in these circumstances a vote for, or proposal of, a Reform measure by a private member was mere "humbug,"—and that if Mr. Caird's constituents had approved his conduct, they had done so in ignorance of these facts, and that if Mr. Caird had voted against Ministers on a question affecting their tenure of power he would not have received the office conferred upon him. Mr. Caird declares that these allegations deeply hurt his honour, and that he will refer the correspondence to the Committee of the Reform Club. Mr. Aytoun replies that they are true, and that he will appeal to the public by publishing them.

Now we certainly shall not undertake to decide in Mr. Aytoun's favour on the point of the private motives and understandings of Mr. Caird, seeing that these are matters known only to himself, and on which the world being ignorant must give him the benefit of the presumption of innocence. But it is impossible not to admit that the conduct of all those professing Liberals who vote for independent measures of Reform, and yet aid in keeping in office a Government which effectually obstructs Reform, is such as to lay them open to the charge of insincerity. We are told, indeed, that a Liberal Ministry must be maintained because of other questions than Reform; but a Conservative Ministry could not depart from Liberal policy on these questions in the face of a Liberal majority, and therefore there is no risk at all of reversal of such policy by the mere displacing of a Whig Government. And the question for the members who have just been returned, pledged once more to Reform, is simply whether they will insist on its being carried, or whether they will again be parties to its being shuffled over, salving their consciences with the assertion that they have voted for it, when they knew it could not be carried. Mr. Gladstone, indeed, tells us that this is a question for the constituencies. But the constituencies have done all they can do when they have elected members who announce themselves of a certain way of thinking. Twice over they have thus marked their wishes. The last Parliament was elected on the question of Reform. The present Parliament, though the dissolution has not been on that question, is not less distinctly elected upon it. What remains to be seen is, whether it will force the subject on the Ministry, or gracefully allow the Ministry to drop it because the country does not break out in rioting—a question which involves no less than the faith of our public men—the sincerity of those whom the nation has honoured with its trust.

THE REJECTED OF OXFORD.

THE great University of Oxford has rejected Gladstone. The Chancellor of the Exchequer no longer represents that venerable seat of learning. The man who for eighteen years has fought her battles, and has maintained her cause through good report and evil report; the scholar who reflected such lustre upon her academic name; the orator whose masterly eloquence found an echo in every corner of a great empire; the statesman who has contributed so vastly to the material prosperity of our country; the man whose rich and well-stored mind seems ever at home on almost every subject, from the highest speculations in philosophy and poetry, down to the manufacture of earthenware and porcelain—this is the man Oxford has cashiered from her service, and banished from her representation. The brilliant debater, the learned author of "Homer's Studies," the acute speculator on "the Connection of Church and State," the practised and tried politician, is discarded by one of the greatest intellectual constituencies in the world—to her everlasting shame—for a man who, however able and respectable he may be, is yet but a pigmy, with puny limbs and puny powers, standing beside the colossal intellect of his defeated rival. Such a triumph, achieved by bigotry and the intense narrow-mindedness of Toryism, is not new to Oxford; it is but the repetition of the folly and wrong perpetrated about a quarter of a century ago, when Sir Robert Peel was the victim. When his politics became too advanced, and his mind too expanded for the narrow party who reigned absolute

in the University, he was, after the same fashion, ousted from the representation of his Alma Mater, which his brilliant scholarship and splendid statesmanship had for years adorned. Neither Peel nor Gladstone were the men to represent the old Tory bigotry of bygone opinions. Those great men could think and would think for themselves. They were too honest, too jealous of the right of conscience and liberty to be shackled by chains forged in the furnace of party persecution and in an iron age. Their keen intellectual vision saw the high wants of the times in which they lived, and they lifted their energies to supply those wants, and so rose above the little men and the little views by which they were surrounded.

In a circular of Mr. Gladstone's committee, dated July 15th, his friends stated their conviction that "his seat was in danger." We cordially agree with the ground on which the Committee made this last appeal. "The Committee do not scruple to advocate his cause on grounds above the common level of politics; they claim for him the gratitude due to one whose public life has for eighteen years reflected a lustre on the University herself. They confidently invite you to consider whether his pure and exalted character, his splendid abilities, and his eminent services to Church and State do not constitute the highest of all qualifications for an academical seat, and entitle him to be judged by his constituents as he will assuredly be judged by posterity. They would remind you that if the University, of which he has been so long the ornament, should now reject him, she cannot recall him, and they would urge you to aid in averting from her this lasting reproach by recording your vote in his favour." We regret that this eloquent appeal for one of the first men of the age has been made in vain; we regret the blow the University has thus dealt to her own dignity, and the loss she must suffer in the eyes of the country that looks to her especially to uphold its intellectual greatness. Let Oxford look to the signs of the times, and see how utterly it is beyond her power to stem the tide of popular opinion in favour of a liberal and enlightened policy. Let her look to educated Scotland, and ponder well the significant fact that scarcely a single borough, and but few counties there, will send to Parliament Tory members. Let her look to London—the largest and richest city in the world, with the most enlightened and educated population on earth, which has been all but unanimous in declaring for the principles of progress. Let us ask what is it that Conservatism has ever done to further the great and momentous question of education? As a great educational body, such a question ought to have been well considered by Oxford before she rejected Gladstone. We know of no measure in favour of popular education that Conservatism can justly claim, save Lord Derby's national education scheme for Ireland—a scheme which gave entire satisfaction to no party, and has ever been utterly detested and disowned by his own, and therefore cannot fairly be considered a Conservative measure. It is indeed universally acknowledged that the great Liberal party and the chiefs of that party alone, took up the question of popular education, and have carried it to its present successful development.

The country need not be told who originated our London University and its kindred institutions, the Queen's Colleges in Ireland, the Mechanics' Institutions, the extensive and valuable reforms of Oxford and Cambridge, and the Commission of Inquiry into the great Public Schools and the Grammar-schools of England. The Liberal policy of the last thirty years has been distinctly marked by measures to improve the education of the country. And now, we ask, what can be more anomalous and extraordinary than to witness a great educational body, such as Oxford, straining every nerve to thwart the efforts of the only party that has done anything worthy of the name in the cause of education? Oxford has ever proved itself the worthy successor of that dark age that buried the knowledge it had tortured to death—the knowledge that woke to new life only when freedom of thought came to roll away the stone that lay on its sepulchre! The result of the late contest at Oxford shows that the time has arrived to give the University the benefit of a more thorough reform in its constitution. At present its honours, its emoluments, its influence, and political power, are chiefly in the hands of the avowed enemies of progress. The infusion of new blood, the introduction of a new element, would save and renew its constitution. To give a fair share of the rewards and honours of learning to our Nonconforming brethren, would not only be a righteous and gracious act of justice to their claims and the claims of learning itself; it would do much to raise the intellectual standard there, and it would do more to break down the tyranny of a narrow and exclusive clique that has rejected one of the greatest men

of his age, for daring to have a will and judgment of his own, for daring to stand alone and above them, and for daring to rise to his country's greatness beyond the little level of their narrow prejudices.

BELFAST TORIES.

If there has been rough work, and some ruffianly work, at three or four of the English elections, it is a consolation to know that it has been the work of roughs and ruffians, in which they have had no encouragement from the classes above them. But should any one wish to learn how ruffianism and respectability may become fused by party heat so that it shall be impossible to distinguish between the gentleman and the black-guard, let him read the accounts of the election for Belfast, the most prosperous and ill-behaved town in Ireland. It will occasionally happen, even amongst a people so sensible as our own, that from momentary causes an election will be attended with riot—that heads will be broken, and that an unpopular candidate will be mobbed and roughly handled, as was Mr. Lowe some years ago by the electors of Kidderminster, who have just done themselves the distinguished honour of electing Mr. Albert Grant, *alias* Gottheimer, of *Crédit Mobilier* celebrity. But, as a rule, we have long laid aside the bludgeon as a party weapon, and electors do not think it necessary to their freedom and independence to threaten the lives either of candidates or brother electors. Not so in Belfast. There an inclination to violence is the normal condition of the public mind. Popular outbreak is always in a state of preparation, and the smouldering fire of political and religious strife blazes up and rages with more or less violence at least once a year. What the peaceful inhabitants, who look with disgust on the saturnalia of bigotry and ruffianism, must feel when the 12th of July, the great Orange anniversary, is approaching, they only can tell. But if to party processions is added the stimulant of an election, the prospect must be sufficiently dreadful to try the strongest nerves. Wise Mr. Lytle, the Mayor of this volcanic town, who left Belfast during the riots of last autumn to recruit his health at Harrogate, could last week hit upon no other day than this maddening one for the nomination of candidates. He chose the most exciting day in the year, “advisedly,” he says, “believing that by so doing, the peace of the town would be preserved;” and he justifies his choice by asserting that “the present contested election has passed over with less rioting or disturbance than was ever known in Belfast on any similar occasion.” If this statement is true—and in one important particular Mr. Lytle’s letter is directly contradicted by his own witness—Belfast is still steeped in the worst vices of social barbarism. On the day of nomination, the mounted police, by a clever manoeuvre, scattered the Liberals—their magistrates looking on,—and made way for the Orangemen, who at once rushed into the Court House, each flourishing a bludgeon or “skull-cracker,” which, while outside the building, they had concealed under their clothes. “It is impossible,” writes the correspondent of the *Times*, “to describe the tumult that was kept up by this mass, waving orange handkerchiefs, brandishing bludgeons, cheering, yelling, groaning, whistling, stamping on the floor, beating the Kentish fire, laughing, hooting, grimly gesticulating, menacing Lord John Hay and his friends with personal violence, and threatening occasionally to mount the platform [which was already packed with the “gentlemen” of their party] in order to carry their threats into execution. If an unfortunate Liberal, Presbyterian, or Catholic had fallen into their hands, his life would unquestionably have been sacrificed, for the police could not get in to the rescue, and the Orangemen were absolutely frantic. It was a melancholy exhibition of humanity in the nineteenth century.” Hear another witness:—“A band of dangerous lunatics,” writes the *Belfast Daily Whig*, “escaped from an asylum could not have thrown reason and decency more completely aside. One would have thought, looking on, that hell itself was empty, and all the devils were there. The scene was simply shocking. Men forgot their human nature, and were turned for the moment into wild beasts. The life of Lord John Hay would not have been worth a moment’s purchase if he had been cast unaided in the midst of the raging maniacs, who grimaced at him, who shook their fists and clubs as nearly as they could in his face, and some of whom strove to clamber over the partition which divided him from them.” If the last Belfast election was particularly peaceful, what on earth could former ones have been?

But if this was the behaviour of the Belfast Tories before the election was decided, it was quite as disgraceful, though in

a different way, afterwards. While the Mayor withdrew to an ante-room to scrutinize the polling-books, the mob in the Court House voted a notorious Orangeman connected with Sandy-row into the chair, a man described as “one of the most respectable personages in the assemblage,” who, after thanking his “fellow-brethren and Protestants” for the honour they had done him, called upon one of the “brethren” to sing a song. Orange bludgeons had signalized the day of nomination, Orange ditties were to celebrate the day of declaration. First came the party song, “Derry Walls;” then “The Orange and Blue,” composed in honour of the massacre at Dolly’s Brae; then, “No Surrender,” which, says the *Northern Whig*, “was chorused by nearly all the gentlemen on the platform, among whom were many of the most influential residents of Belfast.” Some gentlemen, we are glad to learn, there were in the assemblage who cried “Shame, shame!” at this offensive exhibition in a court of justice; and even some members of the Conservative party had the right feeling to regard it with disgust; “but on the other hand,” writes the *Whig*, “men of intelligence and education, holding respectable positions in Belfast, were not ashamed to chorus the songs, and to encourage, so far as they could, this outrageous violation of the law.” The songs over, the chairman introduced to the meeting a Mr. Kane, who, for half an hour, addressed them in a speech in which he attacked the most cherished articles of the Roman Catholic faith. “He assailed,” says the *Whig*, “in the most farcical manner, the doctrines of purgatory, of transubstantiation, and the sacrifice of the mass; and every remark that he made, whether in jest or in earnest, was so shockingly unbecoming, that all persons of proper feeling must have revolted at the outrage.” The persons of proper feeling were unfortunately the minority. This wanton and insulting tirade was loudly applauded at its termination, and the party songs were again taken up to the immense delight not only of the untaught rabble below the hustings, but of the well-dressed and educated rabble on the platform.

The town of Belfast prides itself on its progress and enlightenment, and, as far as progress goes, its boast must be admitted. But how is its enlightenment consistent with the fact that in respect of political and religious intolerance it is the plague-spot of Ireland, and a disgrace to the civilization of the United Kingdom? If such exhibitions as we have above considered were confined to the lowest of the low, we might condole with this enterprising town on the presence in its community, of Christians and freemen who would disgrace a society of savages; but we should also be able to encourage them with the hope that the good example from above would in time leaven the gross brutality below. We can hold out no such hope so long as any portion of the gentility of Belfast sets to its lower orders the example of bigotry, lawlessness, and ruffianism. So long as Belfast gentlemen of position and respectability will chorus the party songs of bygone strife, so long will its hatreds continue the inheritance of their town. We do not learn now for the first time that the rioters of Sandy-row can reckon with certainty on the sympathy and connivance of Tory gentlemen, of Tory magistrates, and their police. The report of the Belfast Commissioners has set this matter beyond doubt. But how far “respectable” and “influential” residents can lend themselves to aid and abet the exhibition of the vilest political and religious bigotry and violence, last week’s election has shown us. What but periodical riot and bloodshed can be expected from the scum of the town when a considerable portion of its *élite* inhabitants place themselves on a level with the scum, and act as their fuglemen? This Belfast election is a pitiable spectacle. It shows us a people standing in the front rank of industrial communities, sharing and increasing the material prosperity of our age, but in its social, political, and religious aspect, lingering still in the barbarism of the past, and clinging to it with all the gusto of barbarians.

THE ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH.

NOTHING daunted by the ill success of the last attempt to link America and England together by telegraphic communication, and fortified with the experience of failure, we have again ventured upon the hazardous enterprise, with arrangements as perfect as skill can make them. That the thing is practicable is not to be doubted. It came so near success on the first attempt that the Queen and President Buchanan were able to exchange messages of congratulation, which came and went with the celerity of thought and the distinctness of oral utterance. But the electric voice had scarcely delivered these greetings when its articulation began to fail, and presently

from an uncertain sound it ceased to give any sound at all. What effect the 2,500 miles of electric wire which were then sunk in the Atlantic might have had on our relations with the American republic it is perhaps not difficult to say. Some have thought that they would have produced a better feeling between the two great sections of the Anglo-Saxon race, while others have taken a different view of the matter, holding that in the case of the *Trent* difficulty, popular passions on either side would have been more speedily aroused and less easily controlled by the news, on one hand, that the British flag had been insulted, and by the knowledge, on the other, of the intense indignation which the insult caused. We doubt whether either of these opinions is correct. No rapidity of communication could have added to the calm but stern determination of the English people that the outrage to its honour should be expiated by apology or by war; and it would be difficult indeed to imagine anything more insolent than the way in which the American press and people triumphed over what they thought was our humiliation, or more dogged than their intention to stand by their illegal act if we should only be found patient enough to submit to it. Nor could the successful completion of the Atlantic telegraph have exercised any influence upon our sympathies on either side during the war. Englishmen who saw in the preservation of the Union a cause worthy of their good wishes could not have been more eager for the success of the North if they had learnt the event of a battle in a few hours instead of days after its occurrence; nor, with such increased rapidity of intelligence, could those who took the other side of the question have exulted more in the splendid triumphs of Southern chivalry, or lamented more sorrowfully over its ultimate fall.

Nor do we think that, beyond the advantages which commerce will undoubtedly derive by the success of the present experiment, if it should succeed, there will result from it that better feeling between the peoples of the two States, which is part of the gain counted upon. If it had been possible by an enthusiastic recognition of American independence, by the candid admission of the energy and genius of the American people, or by patience under their occasionally waywardness towards the mother country and that hatred of the Britisher which they have never attempted to conceal, to win the Americans to more kindly and temperate feelings towards the nation from which they received the germs of their prosperity, we should not have failed to do so. Their manners, it is true, have furnished a fruitful theme to our satirists, who have not been less sparing to those of their own countrymen. But this cause of irritation apart, we have not failed to do justice to their energy and enlightenment, to the amazing progress they have made, to their zeal in the cause of freedom, to the success with which they have cultivated the arts of peace, and, even in that war whose result we regret, to the indomitable perseverance they have displayed. Americans have found a ready welcome in English society; our theatres have been crowded to witness the performances of their actors and actresses when, as has generally been the case, they have deserved our admiration; and we have given to their greatest poet a place in our esteem hardly inferior to that of our own. But with all this we have failed to conciliate American opinion towards us; doing everything to deserve their good-will, they have lost no opportunity of showing how utterly we have failed to gain it. And as they have felt towards us hitherto, it is but too likely they will continue to feel. Their dislike is inexplicable upon any rational theory. We can only understand it when we remember how rooted are those hostilities which sometimes spring up between members of one family, and how often the conditions which should secure amity produce the contrary result. On our side certainly this is not so. However strongly the sympathies of the majority of the thinking men of England went with the late Confederacy, there is but one desire now throughout the length and breadth of this country, and that is, that the Union may speedily recover from the effects of the war which has so cruelly afflicted it; that the desert it has made of peaceful and flourishing regions may as soon as possible be replaced by their old and happy features.

And if we have a wish to add to this, it is that the American people, chastened by the scourge of war, and experienced in its horrors, may be brought to a more just and more generous tone of mind towards the Old Country, to which they owe at least the rudiments of their civilization, and from which they have derived not only their language, religion, institutions, and literature, but so large a portion of its population, born under the shadow of the British throne, but giving their manhood to do the work, and to fight the battles of the Republic. Possibly even so unlikely a result may come

to pass, and if the experiment now being made to bring the two countries closer to one another, in point of communication, should aid in bringing it about, we shall rejoice over it, not only in the interests of commerce, but in the far higher interest of the brotherhood of nations.

A DOUBTFUL CONVICTION.

It were greatly to be desired that some more definite rule could be laid down with respect to the degree of mental aberration which renders a man legally irresponsible for his actions. The want of some such rule is leading our courts of justice into a slough of contradictions, is making the administration of the law every day more and more difficult, is continually casting a doubt over the validity of verdicts, and, it is to be feared, has already betrayed us into acts of injustice, or of perverted justice. No doubt this is a matter which it is very difficult to determine with any degree of precision. The limits of sanity and mania are as vague as the limits of land and water in a marshy soil. Each runs into the other with a subtle confusion of the lines of demarcation, and we can only make broad distinctions such as shall save us at least from going egregiously wrong. But in the case of insanity we might surely do a little better than we are now doing. Medical science has made great advances of late; we really know more of the physical structure of man, of the action of the brain, and consequently of the diseases of the mind, than we knew fifty years ago; and it seems, therefore, but right that we should revise our legal theories of guilt and responsibility by the greater light we have acquired since the days of our forefathers. We are far from saying that the law should adopt, or that juries should guide their course by, all the fantastic notions of the mad doctors; but it is clearly necessary that we should consider such grave issues in a more philosophical, or rather a more scientific, spirit than has hitherto prevailed, and should enlarge and correct our old-world dogmas by the standard of modern knowledge. Nothing can be more unsatisfactory than the rules laid down by judges for the guidance of juries in cases where the defence has turned on an allegation of insanity. It is commonly said that the test of whether a man was sane or insane at the time he committed a certain act, is to be found in the circumstance of his knowing or not knowing the nature of the act, its consequences, and its legal bearing. If he understood all this at the time, he is held to have been sane and responsible; if he did not, the law will admit the plea of madness. Now, few things are more certain than that madmen are often perfectly well aware of the nature of what they are about—know, with the keenest perception of facts, that when they are cutting a man's throat they are doing that which will in all probability cause his death, and that murder is a crime which the law punishes with hanging; yet it is absurd to contend that for that reason they are sane, and may justly be condemned to the scaffold. The essence of insanity is not want of knowledge, but want of power to control the actions. Owing to cerebral disturbance, the will is so weakened that it becomes the mere slave of the passions and the imagination, and blindly follows their dictation, not in ignorance of the consequences, but in defiance of them. The truth of this is shown in a hundred cases, and all the medical science of modern times proves that in disorders of the brain there is a frightful and mysterious depravation of the will. It may be said that this applies to all cases in which murders are committed in moments of rage and passion; and no doubt it is impossible to lay down any general rule which shall define where responsibility ends and irresponsibility begins. All extreme wrath is a species of madness, and, stated nakedly, the theory that the predominance of the passions over the will constitutes madness, might seem to include all cases of violence committed during anger. Each case, however, must be determined by a careful examination of all the facts connected with the criminal's mental condition for a long period of time—with his antecedents, the presence or not of insanity in the family, the liability to delusions, &c. In this way, and in this way alone, can the judge and jury decide whether there was a standing and permanent perversion of the criminal's mental powers to such an extent as to make him unaccountable, or whether the homicidal act was the result of the momentary access of rage, the mind at all other times having its natural self-control. At any rate, we must get rid, and that as quickly as possible, of the ignorant old mistake that knowledge of consequences is a proof of sanity.

A case was tried at Winchester in the commencement of the week, which shows the strange and blundering way in

which our juries come to conclusions on the grave question whether a man is sane enough to be hanged as a murderer. George Broomfield was indicted for the wilful murder of Caroline Sophia Colborne, at Shirley. The facts were proved beyond a doubt; it was absolutely certain that the woman died by this man's hand, and that Broomfield afterwards made an attempt on his own life, the only defence possible being that he was insane. It appears that he is a married man, about forty-six or forty-seven years of age. He was married six or seven years ago, but has been living since then as a butler in the service of Miss Onslow at Alresford. While in that employment, he became passionately attached to the lady's-maid, Caroline Sophia Wing, a girl possessed, unfortunately for herself, of personal beauty and attractive manners. Although married, he paid addresses to this girl, which she, knowing how the case stood, refused to listen to, and subsequently left her place, to escape his importunities. Shortly afterwards, she married a person named Colborne, and they lived at Shirley. On the 3rd of last December, Broomfield was at Shirley, and, having learnt where Mrs. Colborne was living, he called at the house, and saw her. The husband came in shortly afterwards, and was introduced by his wife to the stranger. Broomfield said he was going to America, to enlist under the Federals or the Confederates, and the three sat together for a long while, talking in a very friendly way, and Colborne treating Broomfield to brandy, tobacco, and other things. At length the former went out to make some household purchases, and was absent about ten minutes; during which time, Broomfield seems to have got Mrs. Colborne to write a letter for him (to which he added a postscript), and he must then have immediately shot the poor woman and himself. A neighbour, hearing a report followed by a scream, rushed in, and found Mrs. Colborne dead; two other reports followed, and Broomfield was seen to be severely wounded. He lay on the floor, grasping in his hand a revolver with five chambers, of which only two remained loaded. The letter which Mrs. Colborne wrote for the prisoner was a letter of farewell to his wife, expressed in terms of the deepest affection, but telling her that he was going to fight for the Confederates. The postscript was addressed to another woman, requesting her to give all the assistance she could to his "dear wife." There was also a letter in the prisoner's handwriting, addressed to Colborne, and probably written while he and his wife were out for a time, when Broomfield was alone in the house. It ran as follows, and is in itself important evidence as to the man's state of mind:—

"My dear Mr. Colborne,—You must bear up under this heavy trial, same as one that I have left, she is dying through the heavy trial I have brought upon her. I have always thought—since I have been so ill I cannot rest night or day, as I have constant ringing in my ears—that Carry must die with me. I feel we shall both meet again in Heaven, where I trust we shall both meet you and my poor dear and affectionate dying wife. Yours will not be half the trial as the one I have left behind has gone through, and is now going through. I hope you will get someone to telegraph to say I am dead. I wish you to do so, or someone, to Mr. Brown, 49, Great Marylebone-street, Portland-place. Good bye, and God bless and support you all under this heavy trial. "G. B."

"I hope you will forgive me, and let us both lay together till we shall be called forth to meet Christ; then all sorrow and trouble will be at an end. I have changed my mind in going away since dear Carry wrote the note, as I feel she must die with me. I got Mrs. Colborne to write this note, as I feel too ill to do so. "G. B."

But this is not the only proof of insanity. On a certain day in September, 1862, Broomfield was in attendance on his then master (Lord George Beauchamp), who was out shooting with some friends. Lord Falkland, in aiming at a bird, missed it, and the shot struck the butler in the head and back. No less than thirty shots were extracted from him, and from that time he became a man subject to delusions and melancholia. This is the evidence of Dr. Tweed, the surgeon who attended on him, and surely nothing can be plainer:—

"He had known the prisoner as a patient for six years. He was first suffering from indigestion; it had since taken the form of melancholia. He had been subject to it for the last eighteen months. He complained of an emptiness in his head. He said his blood was turned to water. He felt a trickling from his heart. He was under great apprehension of death, and frequently sent to witness to come to him, as he feared his death. There was no reason for this. He suffered from lowness of spirits. He always imagined that he was going to die. Witness latterly thought the symptoms were suicidal, and gave directions that he should not be left alone, and should have frequent change of air and scene. His disease was mental. He did not require medicine, but he gave him some in order to quiet him. His mind decidedly was off its balance, and he thought it likely to become worse, and that he would probably become dangerous to himself, and perhaps to others."

Broomfield had a house in South Molton-street, which his wife let in lodgings, and where he sometimes resided himself when not in service. On the morning of the murder, he left this house, called on a Mr. Brown, and asked him to lend him £10, as he was going to America. (It appears, by the way, that he was really in no want of money.) His friend stated at the trial that he was alarmed at the expression of Broomfield's face, and felt convinced he was mad, as his eyes were starting out of his head; and the prisoner himself told one of the surgeons at the infirmary that he did not know how he came to leave London on the 3rd of December, but that there was some impulse which he could not control.

The jury probably resolved to reject the plea of insanity on the ground that there was a clear motive for the crime—viz., the man's guilty love of a woman much younger and more attractive than his wife, and his exasperation at finding her in the possession of another. But it is evident that Broomfield was subject to delusions, and was in a state of mental incompetence, owing to an accident; and it seems scarcely possible that, under these circumstances, the law can be permitted to take its course. There must at any rate be another investigation, and a more mature decision.

LIVING PICTURES FROM LOOSE MODELS.

MANY a harlot's picture has been painted, and the public have stood before it in admiration, not only of the woman on whom they gazed, but of the skill which had thrown her beauty upon the canvas; the public, however, did not know it was a harlot. The painter sought a model: he wanted one who possessed beauty of feature and of form, who would, for his money, consent to expose as much of it as he needed for his purpose, and for the time he needed, that he might paint from it. The model was to him a mere animate lay figure; he threw on it just as much dress as the subject it sat for required; he may have chosen it to aid his representation of an incarnation of all that was pure, and modest, and holy; he painted from the without—to him, the within was nothing. Perhaps this model had to paint her own flesh, restore its blemishes, and call in artificial aid to supply points of figure in which she was deficient. It mattered nothing to her whether the artist made a queen of the being who sat half nude, for a few guineas or shillings, that he might sketch in the outline of his subject; it left her as she was—in her calling, although at the next Exhibition she might see the pure and modest gazing at her counterfeit presentment, in the form of some vestal heroine, whose brave purity had given her the fame of history.

"Society" has its yearly living exhibition of the young, the beautiful, the reared in all modesty and purity. The London season is a sort of diorama, a picture ever in motion, ever displaying an animated scenery of a peculiar character. The painter works in his studio for fame and for the money it brings with it. High class owners of young high class beauty have their calling. They seek a sort of fame, in the hope it may bring a certain substantial return. They have daughters they wish to marry. They seek for themselves a position which will enable them to introduce these daughters where they may be disposed of to the best advantage, i.e., with the best marriage settlements, with or without rank. It is well for the rising painter to be intimate if possible, with existing Fellows of the Royal Academy. It is not a mere question of getting his pictures into the exhibition, but the securing their exhibition in a good light. The mother of a school-room brood, forecasting the calms and storms, wrecks and successes of matrimonial life, carefully keeps up her intimacy and friendship with those who, when she must launch a child, can give a fair wind for its first voyage on the world's waves. There is a yachting season; there are shooting, hunting seasons. The London is the matrimonial season. Parliament calls to town the male population of "Society." Where the noble and the wealthy unmarried males are, there do the mothers of marriageable daughters gather together. To reproduce the failures of past seasons, to introduce new daughter-growths, is the business and pleasure, and fortunately is felt to be the duty, of mothers of the World.

The higher classes of London Society are received by the rest of the land as their social examples. It may not be given to the multitude to attain their refinement of manner, acquire that peculiar carriage and general tone of life, which is to the high bred, in comparison with the mass of their imitators, as the step of the racehorse to that of the half-bred; dress and morality are, however, two matters, admitting of close imitation, and very closely do the minor Worlds copy these, as exhibited by

the great World. The painter will sometimes, for his purpose, copy from the figure and face of a harlot the form and features which, in his picture, represent high moral nobility, an embodiment of that he aims to present to us as the representation of perfect purity; toning his whole work according to a deep study of the effect he seeks to produce; taking the form but chastening the expression of every feature of the model. If he displays the person somewhat freely, he so skilfully deals with its colouring and drapery that what is seen which might offend is not obtruded to disgust, but gathers from the general purity of the whole picture that which at once disarms all objection. It is strange, but it is too true, whilst the artist who puts life on canvas so deals with the face and figure of the harlot that he may fit it to be looked on by the chaste, the artists who bring out chaste breathing life before the public, that it may be admired, studied, sought, loved, copy from her much the painter dare not, for his credit's sake, put into his picture. A member of the French Legislature lately stated in his place in the French House of Legislation that the ladies of Paris sought diligently to copy the dress and manners of the *demi-monde* of that city. Are we prepared to deny that the just departed London season has seen mothers with their daughters—those of some seasons and those of this their first season—following to the very extreme the fashion in personal decoration which these Parisian ladies so greedily seek from this foul school?

The daughters of one generation are destined to be the mothers of the next. The virtues and the vices of the mother are powerful elements in determining the future virtuous or vicious life of the daughter. In a mere social point of view the morality of the existing higher classes is of the greatest national importance, for it must affect the future character of its most important example class. In a political point of view it is also a subject for grave consideration. A class allowed high privilege should be one obtaining a high standard of general respect. Whatever lowers the aristocracy in the eyes of the commonality tends to weaken the nation, by bringing into contempt that which, for the national good, needs all the respect it can attain. Rural and provincial society closely copies the dress of the higher classes in London society; refinement, and the peculiar high bearing of the high bred, if worth seeking, is not in the power of mere wealth to attain; money, however, can purchase of the milliner and body-decorator the exact counterfeit of the outward hangings and artistic decorations of any class. The foolish vanity which leads women to that slavish following of the dress, &c., of the highest classes, at any cost to purse or principle, is very degrading to the sex; but so long as it exists it throws on the models no little responsibility, for they know, just so far as they transgress the limits of modesty and good taste, they are setting a copy for the great mass of their sex. If they take at second-hand what the Paris "world" directly, willingly, greedily, takes from the Parisian harlots, they are well aware they do so with the certainty of introducing it into a large proportion of the families of their own land.

Five years ago what mother with any, the least pretension to moral character, would have allowed a daughter to expose herself to the public gaze, dressed, &c., after the fashion which has of late prevailed? and yet how many a mother has so put forth her daughters! There is no little lamentation, year after year, over the habits and principles of the men of the day. It is not only a subject of maternal woe, that they don't care to marry, that they care not to have it seen and known that they have ties which go far to explain the fact; but there is also a growing indisposition on their part to seek the society of the young of their own rank. It is hard work now to obtain the presence of young men at any of the social assemblies, which, in former days, were the great fields of matrimonial enterprise. There is no denying that the young men of these days have been either bored out of their love for the balls and assemblies, to which of old they used to flock, to the satisfaction of mothers, and the enjoyment of daughters, or they have been in some way disgusted with the prevailing habits of such scenes. We are inclined to argue, they are not so changed simply by the weariness of acting on a stage where, if they were matrimonially valuable, they were made too much of: if not, treated as mere male furniture, having their part in the affair, just as the musicians and servants had. It is not a surfeit of attention, or the smart of neglect which has driven them away, but the fact that good society has assumed the outward guise of a class from which none but a fool would seek a wife, without any of that freedom of manner which alone makes men take to it for temporary amusement. We could believe in the attraction to the young men of the day of a casino, at which all the women dressed as Quakers, retaining

their accustomed social freedom in combination with this purity of costume. We can easily understand there being far less attraction where the chaste and pure in conversation yet choose to make their toilet after the model of those who are the very reverse.

If English ladies choose to follow a fashion in dress which outrages all decency, from its liberal exposure in young and old of so much, which in the case of the latter is disgusting to the observer, and in the former can only attract the eye to pain the mind—if young and old are alike to be got up for public exhibition, with all the aid the arts of the Rachel profession can afford—if a lady's-maid needs now to know how to paint and prepare the complexion of her mistress, dye her own or arrange her false hair, and artificially construct wanting points of figure, as well as dress her—it is easy to understand why it is that, after all, the performance fails of its legitimate end—attraction. When modesty affects the millinery, and seeks all the cunning aid which the immodest use to attract, we are left to one or other of two conclusions. The victim of such folly either thinks men will admire in a wife what they only endure in a mistress, or are so weak as to believe that one desirable as a wife by nature and education can continue so after adopting the outward character of what should be as abhorrent to her true self, as opposed to every principle her education ever afforded.

We may be told that a thing good in itself is not to be put aside because those who are evil first produced it, and then availed themselves of it. The style of personal decoration which Paris ladies copy from Parisian sinners, was for the purpose of the latter a fitting thing; having set aside all idea of the modest, seeking to proclaim it, their study is to set off immodesty to the greatest advantage; to advertise their want of virtue, with as much of good taste as such work will permit. They have to "make up" an appearance becoming their calling. Whatever can conceal personal blemish, or exhibit to the utmost any beauty of feature and figure, is absolutely necessary to them. In one matter this class is true and real—its members eschew all claim to be considered under any obligation to respect the ordinary female ideas of what is morally right. They dress, and dye, and paint as those whose whole character is known to be artificial; it is but natural that for their purpose, they should invoke the aid of all possible art in their personal decoration.

Is it conceivable that if fashion had not caused this wholesale transformation of well-dressed English mothers and daughters into careful copies, by the self-same arts, of the *Aspasia*s of Paris, it would have been suffered that a few only of them should have taken it upon themselves to so act? Would any living nobleman have allowed his wife and daughters to have gone into society made up after models society is forced to see, but has not yet been compelled to recognise? English taste, English principles could scarcely have been so lowered, had not the poison been gradually imbibed. The fact is, we had to learn to look with some indulgence on what we used to be taught was to be morally and wholly ignored; this done, we worked up from the point at which we were indulgent, to where we condoned; it was then but one step farther to accept as our models of outward adornment, those who use it in a calling we had come to look upon with little, if any, indignation.

It is with regret we have spoken thus severely of the prevailing tone of dress in those quarters to which so many look for example in everything. To be prudish in dealing with the subject would have shown us false. We have many national follies, and there is much in which we can afford to be foolish. But the modest bearing of our wives and daughters is a matter in which all have an interest. It is one which can yield to no other in national importance. The wanton extravagance originating in this love of personal decoration, is in itself an evil of no little magnitude; it is crippling the resources of many a family, laying the foundation for the fall of many a house. This, however, is a minor evil compared with that degradation of inward purity and refinement, which this offensive attention to personal display produces. It is bad enough to expose the young daughters of our highest educated, noble, and wealthy classes, to that amount of moral danger to which they must be liable when we take them out day after day and night after night on the World's great errand—the seeking their settlement as wives. It was scarcely needed that we should have them carefully impressed with the duty of so dressing and so artificially preparing themselves, that, just out of the schoolroom—but a year since, perhaps, confirmed—they are to appear in public, got up to attract attention, after the meretricious fashion of those whose utter degradation they are as yet, happily, incapable of understanding.

LAY AGENCY IN THE NAVY.

IN all ages, and in every branch of the Christian Church, lay agency, paid or voluntary, has been employed. In our own times, and in our own branch of the Church, it has received a peculiar development. Sunday-school teachers and superintendents, district visitors, acolytes, &c., represent the voluntary lay agency. Scripture readers, forming a sort of lay diaconate, is the favourite form of the more regular and paid agency. The difficulty has always been in selecting and controlling the layman, to prevent zeal and enthusiasm running into fanaticism, or the love of pre-eminence and distinction striking out wilful and unauthorized courses. Perhaps the most regular and most successful organization of paid laymen acting under clerical control and episcopal authorization, is the Church of England Scripture Readers Association, which for twenty years has, under the sanction of the Bishops of London, furnished the metropolitan incumbents with lay deacons. The essence of the organization is, approval of the individual by the Bishop, and subjection of the work to the parochial clergy. Thus the diocesan and parochial systems form the basis of their action.

But when, only four years ago, the Naval Church first adopted lay agency, and took the rules of the Church of England Society for their model, they were met at the threshold by a difficulty of which they have frequently been reminded, viz., the want of a bishop. No ecclesiastic presides over the church in the navy, and every one of its 155 clergymen is of the same clerical order; they are in fact many isolated and independent ministers who, in joining the naval service, have ceased to be Episcopalians. Because the navy had not a shadow of ecclesiastical rule, was it therefore to be denied the benefits of an agency which was so largely employed under the Chaplain-general's directions in the sister service? "Yes," replied some of the naval clergy, "we have no bishops; we ourselves are fettered and tongue-tied; we have no legal authority to select and set apart Scripture readers; therefore let our seamen lack the help of laymen from their own class in life also!" The dissentients were, however, few in number, whilst the active movers pointed to abounding sensuality, drunkenness, and infidelity, and determined on immediate action. The circumstances of the time were well calculated to arouse all naval men of right feeling, whether clergy or laity. An influx of "bounty men" in 1859-60, had demoralized the inner life of our "ships of war," whilst the naval seaports were the scenes of most degrading and loathsome spectacles, which the strong hand of authority left untouched. Humiliated by such public abominations, proclaiming to the outer world the contaminations of naval life, a few officers of the ships at Devonport associated themselves with the clergy, formed a committee, appealed for subscriptions, drew up such rules as the peculiar nature of the naval service required, appointed Scripture readers, and set them earnestly to work. It was at once seen by this committee (though they were not all Churchmen) that no great and good effort could be effected but under the sanction of the lay authorities and with the concurrence of the chaplains. Each candidate for employment is therefore, before entry, examined by the clerical members of a committee, in the fundamental doctrines of Scripture as held and taught by the Church of England. Each ship is looked upon as a parish into which no reader should be permitted to enter without the sanction of both the officer in command and the chaplain, the latter being invited to superintend the work in his own ship. Practically, it has been found that to only three ships of war, during the last year, have the wishes of the seamen been ungratified, by according admission to the readers. And in each of these cases one of the two authorities greatly desired what the other refused. At a public meeting held some time ago at Devonport, which suggests these remarks, a petty officer stated very clearly the reasons why the Scripture reader was so warmly received on the lower decks, and so convincing was his statement, that one of the three ships referred to was immediately opened to this agency. However, with the limited number of readers now employed, the shutting up of a ship at Devonport, and another at Portsmouth, can be of little consequence to the Society, which has seventeen chaplains out of those stationed in the home ports on its committee, and has such authoritative advocates at its public meetings as the commanders-in-chief at Portsmouth and in the West Indies, and the Colonel-Commandant of the Plymouth Division of Royal Marines. Whilst the most gratifying testimony is afforded by chaplains and officers, and by seamen themselves, of the invaluable influence exerted by these readers, by which infidelity has been met, drunkenness and vice checked, obedience and discipline encouraged, real godliness fostered, the labours of the

chaplains supplemented, and many led to seek clerical ministrations and to the Lord's supper. To our mind the interest taken in the movement by some of the most distinguished officers in the naval service, who best know the wants, the difficulties, and the temptations of the men under their command, proves that their labours, when directed wisely and discreetly, under the guidance of chaplains, are attended with the most beneficial effects. But the number of these readers is wholly inadequate to the great work before them. At Portsmouth, where about 24,000 seamen annually spend some months, exclusive of the 5,000 patients who pass through the hospital wards, only three readers are employed, besides one on Admiralty pay to assist the hospital chaplain; being an average of one reader to every 7,250 men. At Devonport, the wants of 19,000 seamen who annually visit the port, and about 2,000 annual hospital patients, are inadequately met by three readers; whilst one is charged with the 2,000 Royal Marines in barracks and their 2,000 wives and children. At Woolwich one reader is provided for the Royal Marine Division of about 1,500 men, and the detachment at Deptford and the hospitals, together with all the shipping at that station. At Malta 11,500 annual visiting seamen, about 600 annual hospital patients, and 80 Protestant dockyard families are provided with one reader. And lastly, the West Indian fleet, with its various head-quarters—Bermuda, Halifax, and Jamaica, widely apart—receive the services of but one reader. The fleets in China and at Sheerness, Cork, &c., have not even been thought of.

The fact is, funds are wanting. In four years this essentially naval society has overcome many professional prejudices, conciliated authority, and, being almost entirely supported by the subscriptions of naval men themselves (of all ranks) and their immediate friends, it has achieved its present position. But the outer world has either been in ignorance of its existence or doubtful of its objects. Staunch Churchmen on shore look upon such agency with suspicion, and non-naval Dissenters think the Society too Churchlike in its arrangements. The best evidence we landmen can desire as to its management is that afforded by the almost unanimous approval of naval officers of all creeds, and of the naval clergy. Experience has shown that one of the most direct roads to the hearts of men in humble positions in the navy and marine (and the same has also been proved in the army) is by means of instructors drawn from their own station in life, but educated and specially trained as Scripture readers. To lead our sailors to the vital and practical truths of Christianity, to wean them, if possible, from wicked and profligate habits,—these are enjoined on the readers as their duties. To avoid all controverted points of doctrine, and unprofitable arguments; to teach peace, goodwill, and contentment; to persuade, to win, and to influence for good, individual men at their mess-tables and in their leisure hours, are their instructions. To work in obedience to, and into the hands of the chaplain; to support and uphold the authorities; to conserve discipline, lay and clerical,—these are their principles of action. The best safeguard we have against deviation from these principles lies in the fact that the reader's permission to visit a ship of war at all is a *sufferance*, which can be withdrawn by either chaplain or captain, without even assigning a reason, or giving an explanation. Considering the low ebb which naval morals have attained, calling for special Parliamentary interference; the terrible stringencies of the Naval Discipline Act; and the discontent evinced by the present Exodus; we consider any reasonable agency tending to mitigate these evils, raise the general tone, and create cheerfulness, contentment, and good conduct in such an important branch of the public service, one worthy of public approval and support.

PHOTOGRAPHY.

FROM time immemorial there has existed a class of persons who are ready to prognosticate the evils attendant on an advance of civilization. To such people it must always remain a vexed question how far the revelations of natural science affect, either morally or practically, the individual interests of mankind. Happily they are always in a minority, but like every minority they have something to say on their side. From the invention of gunpowder to the first application of steam as a moving power, probably every physical discovery has had its drawbacks. If, for example, by the powerful aid of chemistry, we have learned to detect the action of certain poisons, and to apply betimes their proper antidote, it is to chemistry also that we owe the invention of other poisons for which there would seem to be no antidote at all. The sub-

stitution of machinery for manual labour has often been the cause of much temporary distress among the working classes, and no doubt, if we were to come to statistics, something might be urged against the practice of sending telegrams. But of recent inventions there is not one which, in its social aspect, promised to be freer from all chance of reproach than photography. Innocent and harmless in the details of its operation, it exposes to no danger those who pursue it as a business. Not to speak of higher claims to our respect, it has become a source of delight to thousands who but for its help would be unable to secure the likeness of a dead or absent friend, or recall to their memory the appearance of some much-loved scene which fate has forbidden them to revisit in person. It may, indeed, have interfered to some extent with the efforts of pictorial skill, and especially in the department of portrait painting; but altogether the interests of art have been decidedly promoted by an alliance with photography, and many a student has learned from its accurate teaching what it would have been impossible to learn so quickly and thoroughly from any other source.

Moreover, it is essentially a popular art. Those who practise it have of course differed, and will still continue to differ, as to the amount of taste which they display in selecting subjects, and in the conditions of form and *chiaro-scuro* which they adopt for illustration. But inasmuch as the treatment of such subjects, however ingeniously chosen or arranged, must always be naturalistic, there are few who cannot appreciate and enjoy them. Now, it is just by this very popularity that what we may venture to call the ethics of photography are endangered. The difficulties which surround the painter's art form an excellent barrier against the presumption of ignorant followers; indeed, the choice of the profession itself constitutes some guarantee of good taste and refinement. But the most illiterate shop-boy, who can purchase a camera and master the few chemical technicalities necessary for the business, may dub himself photographer and set up on his own account. Such thoroughfares as Tottenham-court-road and the main streets on the Surrey side of the river swarm with these pretenders. Sometimes they combine their calling with that of a tobacconist. Sometimes the lower story of their establishment is occupied by a lady-vendor of lollipops. In one of *Punch's* caricatures, the inevitable touter who stands below soliciting passers-by "to have their likeness took" was once represented promising a glass of brandy and water (to be included in the charge of one shilling) as an inducement to thirsty sitters. Whether there was ever any authority for the satire, we are unable to say; but it is certain that these men have become an intolerable nuisance to the public, and, judging from their appearance as a class, we should augur no good for those who listen to their solicitations. Even supposing nothing worse, it is very hard that country greenhorns and poor servant-maids should empty their pockets for the purchase of trashy portraits, which fall far short of even the miserable standard of excellence suggested by the specimens on view, and which frequently fade completely away at the end of a fortnight. It may naturally be asked why a privilege should be extended to the cheap photographer which neither the poor man's baker nor the poor man's grocer could venture to exercise. Suppose every petty tradesman stood at the door of his shop thrusting twopenny loaves and red herrings under the nose of every one who passed his threshold, how long would such a nuisance be endured? And yet, if touting be permitted in one case, why not in the others?

But these are not the only evils which have crept in of late, in connection with photography. At many of the bettermost west-end stationers and "fancy" warehouses, *cartes de visite* and other specimens of the art are displayed in the shop-windows, for the purpose of attracting notice and, of course, with the ultimate view of securing custom. There would be no great harm in such a practice (albeit a crowded pavement is often a fine field for pickpockets) if notice were attracted by legitimate means. It is a very natural and intelligible curiosity which prompts one to step up and examine the features of great men whose names have been long familiar to us, but whom we have never chanced to see in the flesh. Perhaps it is the likeness of some eminent statesman, or a popular author, or a military hero, or a favourite actor, or a distinguished divine, by which our attention is arrested. There they are, ranged side by side, each interesting in its turn, and forming in their association a sort of miniature portrait gallery for "the million." So far, so good; but unfortunately the sensational taste which has of late invaded our literature and bids fair to degrade our stage, has also reached the photographer's *atelier*. Groups of figures which, if they had been exhibited in Wych-street, would, in all probability, have been

instantly confiscated by the police, are here displayed with a shamefacedness only too characteristic of the subjects which they portray. Some idea may be formed of their character when we mention that the portrait of a ballet-girl in her ordinary dancing-dress appears positively a refined and delicate subject beside them. One female aspirant of equestrian fame, to her own disgrace and that of the theatre to which she belongs, has allowed herself to be photographed in a costume which Lady Godiva would not have coveted, and from which Peeping Tom of Coventry would have recoiled with disgust. For we all know that Nature in her utmost simplicity is always pure. It is the semi-nude figure which becomes immodest. We advocate no drawing-room morality in this matter. There are few men in London whose minds could be corrupted by such a display as this; but for the sake of common decency, let justice be done. Surely what is objectionable in Wych-street is objectionable also in Oxford-street and Regent-street; nor can we understand why a legal remedy applied in the one case should be considered unnecessary for the others.

There is, however, another charge which has been brought against the photographers, but which, being simply a matter of taste, no legislation can affect. We allude to the exhibition of portraits representing criminals or people of notorious ill-fame. It is by no means uncommon to find the *carte de visite* of some Anonyma side by side with those of ladies in a high position of life and of spotless reputation. Not long ago the portrait of Calcraft, the common hangman, might have been seen placed between that of a high dignitary in the Church and a nobleman renowned for his active benevolence. Nor is this all. The likenesses of Müller, the German murderer, and of Booth, the American assassin, have been exposed for sale, and bought in great numbers. Two criminals are at present awaiting—one, the sentence of the law, and the other its execution—viz., Constance Kent and Dr. Pritchard. Will it be believed that photographers who, we presume in the ordinary course of business, took the portraits of this unhappy girl and still more wretched man, have made this accident a source of profit to themselves by respectively distributing copies of each work broadcast throughout the country? If there is anything to be deplored more than the taste of these tradesmen (for no real artist would descend so low), it is the still more lamentable taste of people who buy such things. It must be a morbid mind, indeed, which, independently of scientific considerations, is capable of deriving the slightest pleasure from the contemplation of a murderer's countenance; and if the photograph is bought out of mere idle curiosity, there is all the more reason for shame. Unfortunately, the practice has become a precedent, which is acted on in other quarters. There is at present a placard to be seen in the streets, announcing that an effigy of Dr. Pritchard is now on view at Madame Tussaud's. The waxwork exhibition in Baker-street, during the lifetime of the lady whose name it bears, used to be respectably conducted. The Chamber of Horrors was, indeed, a portion of the entertainment always open to objection, but it only contained the portraits of notorious criminals who had been executed. The indecent haste shown in this case to derive a pecuniary profit from the notoriety of crime during the lifetime of a criminal under sentence of death is to our mind excessively revolting, and we cannot but think that the photographers are chiefly to blame not only for setting a bad example themselves, but in aiding others to follow it. Madame de Stäel used to say that taste teaches us what we should avoid. If that be a correct definition of the attribute, let us hope we may soon see it resume its functions.

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No. XVI.—THE DIOCESE OF EXETER.—No. 3.

PLYMOUTH.

A QUARTER of a century ago the clergy and laity of the Established Church at Plymouth manifested an amount of indifference to Church principles and Church progress which could not have been surpassed (and this is saying much) even in the sister seaport of Portsmouth itself. It is only doing the present Bishop of Exeter justice to say, that when the deplorable state of religion in this portion of his diocese forced itself upon his notice, he exerted himself energetically to effect an improvement. He insisted on a more active and diligent discharge of Church ministrations and parochial duties by the clergy. He appealed to the public for sympathy and pecuniary aid to enable the Church to erect churches and maintain a staff of

clergy sufficiently numerous to meet the wants of the locality. He headed the subscription list for the building of new churches by a liberal donation of one thousand guineas. In his place in Parliament he called the attention of the House of Lords and of the country to the lamentable want of churches and of clergymen in Plymouth, and at last obtained a grant of £4,000 from the Admiralty towards his building fund.

It was said not long ago by the present Viscount Cranbourne, of the political leader under whom he is now anxious to serve, that "he has a fatal facility for landing his party in a ditch." It is disastrous for the Church of England that this description is equally true of one of the ablest of her prelates. Give him the fairest cause!—one that cannot fail to enlist all men's sympathies—one in which it is hardly possible to go wrong—and Bishop Phillpotts, by some unhappy fatality, is sure to infuse into it the poison of strife, controversy, and ill-blood. In the present case the path of duty was also the path of conciliation. Yet the Bishop thought it consistent with his duty to affirm in his appeal to the public that there were no fewer than 80,000 souls in Plymouth without any spiritual instruction!

Let us try the wisdom of this course of action by the success of the last, the greatest, and the most successful Church Building Fund of modern times. The Bishop of London, in his recent appeal on behalf of his Church Building Fund, could have made out a startling case if he had reckoned up the number of church-goers in the metropolis, and had assumed that all the rest of the population (Dissenters included) were unprovided with spiritual instruction. Many Dissenters have responded liberally to Bishop Tait's appeal, but would they have done so if he had coolly ignored the existence of Dissenting places of worship and the labours of Dissenting ministers in his estimate of the spiritual destitution of the metropolis? If, when the Bishop of London sat down to write his appeal for help, the temptation to use the language of insult, of intolerance, and of bigotry had momentarily presented itself to his mind, we know he would have dismissed the impulse as the suggestion of Satan.

It is unnecessary to state that Bishop Phillpotts' appeal was regarded as an unprovoked and unwarrantable affront by the whole body of Nonconformists in Plymouth. They could not forget that during the long period of indifference to religious progress unhappily characteristic of the Church Establishment during the previous generation in Plymouth, the duty of supplying religious instruction for the increasing population had been thrown upon the Dissenters. While only one or two churches had been built in Plymouth during the first thirty or forty years of the present century, numerous Dissenting places of worship had sprung up—the majority, it is true, but small and poorly built, and showing too well that the wealth of the Nonconformist body was by no means commensurate with their zeal for the diffusion of Gospel truth. Still the cost of these Dissenting places of worship and the salaries of their Ministers amounted, in the aggregate, to a very considerable sum, while the Established Church, with her liberal endowments, had done comparatively nothing to feed the sheep and lambs of the fold, and had left them to perish for lack of spiritual food. It was irritating for those who had supplied almost the only spiritual instruction during nearly half a century to find that the number alleged by the Bishop to be without spiritual instruction included all the Dissenters of Plymouth. A prelate of moderate and liberal views and apostolic temper would have done justice to those who had worked in the cause of Christ while the Church had slept. The Bishop of Exeter has not so learnt the lesson of his Great Master. Another bishop would have enlisted the sympathy and good wishes of Dissenters themselves in his appeal, and would have been rewarded by much valuable Christian co-operation—by sites of valuable building-land for churches and gifts of gold and silver. But the Bishop of Exeter approached a great question in an overbearing, arrogant, uncandid, and, we fear posterity will hold, in an unchristian temper. If it be possible to drag the Church of England through the mire of bad and bitter passions, and to sully the lawn sleeves of the bishop, and the surplices of the clergy in the mud and slime of low enmities, the Episcopal Tory pamphleteer of the Regency is unquestionably above all other living prelates, the man for the work.

The Bishop's insult to the Dissenters naturally excited no little personal animosity against the right rev. prelate. Every Dissenting minister and layman in his diocese protested, privately or publicly, against the unprovoked outrage. Many attacks were made upon him. Many replies appeared in his defence. The town rang with controversy. The Bishop was irreverently compared to the keeper of a menagerie, having Dissenting animals in one den and Church animals in another,

who delighted in going round with a pole, and stirring them up and infuriating them by turns. A great deal of ill-feeling and bad blood was generated, and, how wantonly and unnecessarily, we may learn from Bishop Tait's happier and wiser example. The Dissenters were roused to greater activity. The public knew, if the Bishop did not, the value of the services they had rendered to the cause of religion and social order. Their congregations increased, they built more chapels, they laboured more abundantly than ever, and in a spirit of antagonism to the Established Church which, but for Bishop Phillpotts, would never have been developed.

The clergy in Plymouth, no doubt, exerted themselves with greater energy under the eye of their diocesan. Yet, the beneficial influence of the new church-building movement was greatly marred by divisions among the clergy, concerning the near approach to Romish observances and ceremonials shown by some of the extreme High Churchmen who had established themselves in Plymouth in answer to the Bishop's appeal. The Low and Broad Church partisans of the Establishment regarded with great suspicion and dislike the Romish tendencies of these clergymen, and their feelings were fully shared by the Nonconformists. We may especially refer to the ceremonies practised in St. Peter's Church, Plymouth, and the continued incumbency of the Rev. Mr. Prynne, whose name has been so much before the public in connection with extreme Puseyite tendencies. His forms and ceremonies do not go far enough to be ridiculous and innocuous, like those of Father Ignatius. He parodies rather than imitates the Roman Catholic celebration of the mass, spoiling the beautiful simplicity of the Church ritual and of Protestant worship generally, without attaining to the grandeur and poetical beauty of the model. The celebration of the mass is always artistic and impressive, and frequently magnificent. In Mr. Prynne's church everything, to make no further objection, is in execrable taste. The body of the church is utterly out of keeping with the chancel, and the general effect most unartistic, from the tasteless heterogeneous nature of its ornamentation. As to Mr. Prynne's method of conducting the service itself, we shall say enough to ensure its just condemnation from Protestants when we assert that no person, not near enough to catch the words intoned, would imagine it had the slightest connection with the ritual of the Church of England. During our visit we observed that not only are the services of the Romish Church, as we have said, parodied or imitated, but that the very notices posted up at the church doors are studiously worded in the phraseology of the Latin Church. Many similar examples might be brought under the Bishop's notice, and which certainly ought not to be unknown to his archdeacons. The investigation of the charge against Mr. Prynne of using the confessional in a most indiscreet and injudicious, not to say indelicate manner, when the penitent was a female child, is still fresh in the public mind, and is frequently commented upon in the neighbourhood in terms by no means complimentary either to the reverend gentleman or his diocesan. The slightest knowledge of human nature should have taught Mr. Prynne that ten times more evil than good would be evoked by conducting the confession of a penitent of such tender years in the manner reported. Instead of advising Mr. Prynne, however, to remove to some other locality, where the remembrance of the whole proceeding would have died out, the Bishop contented himself with mildly admonishing the reverend gentleman on the scandal which might issue from such a method of conducting a confession—a method, in fact, far more objectionable than that permitted by the Roman Catholic Church—and then allowed him to continue his ministrations in the very locality where he had given this just cause of offence.

We have already adverted to Mr. Prynne's good fortune in obtaining his Bishop's support, against the Dean of Exeter, in the penance he prescribed to a young lady. The Dean had his doubts (which he expressed in a sermon) whether the Cross was honoured, or the penitent profited by being compelled to kneel down and lick with her tongue the shape of a cross upon the dusty floor. The Bishop upheld Mr. Prynne in a pamphlet against the Dean's sermon. The weight of authority was, no doubt, against the Dean; yet public opinion sided with him in the affair, and the penance, so far as we know, has never been repeated.

Public opinion sits in judgment even upon mitred prelates, and has strongly pronounced upon the Bishop's conduct in allowing Mr. Prynne to remain in Plymouth. It would appear that the Bishops are by no means agreed among themselves in matters of church ceremonials. The Bishop of London, a few weeks ago, when the use of Romish ceremonies was brought before the Upper House by the Marquis of Westmeath, stated that he and others of his right reverend brethren were deter-

mined to put a stop to all Romanising practices in the churches of the Establishment, if any charges of this kind were made on credible and reliable testimony. No one interferes with Mr. Prynne in the diocese of Exeter, yet we greatly doubt whether he would be permitted to transfer the ceremonial practices of St. Peter's, Plymouth, to the diocese of London.

In the Church of England at Plymouth in the present day we find every degree, and almost every shade of opinion, from the High Church principles of Mr. Prynne to the extreme evangelical tendencies of the Rev. J. Hatchard, vicar of the parish church of St. Andrews. In Plymouth, exclusive of Devonport and Keyham, there are twelve churches or chapels of ease of the Establishment, to which are attached seventeen clergymen, comprising men of great zeal, intelligence, and popularity, but alas! not infrequently either on bad terms among themselves on doctrinal points, or oftener still waging war either with their diocesan or their congregations. While the extreme parties in the Church are striving to separate still further from each other, a most friendly feeling—a feeling almost of union and fusion—animates the Dissenters. They work together in a most amicable manner, speak of each other in a kindly tone, and grow in the respect and regard of all; while the Church is pointed at for its dissensions, and, in spite of the individual exertions of many devoted members, is too frequently regarded with feelings approaching dislike by those who are still under its spiritual teaching. Nor are Church dissensions confined to differences of opinion on theological points, as between High and Low Church for example, or in bickerings and coolness between the clergy and their congregations, for they sometimes break out even in the staff organization of the same Church, the incumbent being at variance with his curate, or the curate with the churchwardens. Several cases of the kind were brought under our notice. Our attention was especially called to the proceedings of the Court of Inquiry held on the 31st of May last in the church school-room of Stoke Damerel (the parish church of Devonport); by the Ven. Archdeacon Downall, and several of the neighbouring clergy, to investigate a complaint made by the curate, the Rev. R. H. Ware, relative to the refusal of Mr. Churchwarden Ricketts, not only to allow the communion-plate to be used for the administration of the sacrament on a certain saint's day, but for writing to Mr. Ware a letter which he considered to be slanderous. There was also another case exciting considerable interest to be inquired into at the same meeting; one against another churchwarden of the same church (Mr. Greenwood) for illegally opening the grave of a highly respectable family of the name of Stacey, without permission of the owners, for the purpose of enlarging his own family vault, thereby disturbing in a most objectionable and unseemly manner the bodies interred in the grave infringed upon. The latter case was principally remarkable for some most explicit contradictions which passed between the rector, the Rev. Mr. St. Aubyn, and his churchwarden, the latter asserting he had purchased the ground of the rector, and had not only paid for it, but had the receipt to show for the purchase-money as well; and the former insisting he had never seen a shilling of Mr. Greenwood's money, and challenging the production of the receipt. The controversy was made the more remarkable by the Archdeacon informing both parties that the rector of Stoke Damerel had no legal right or power whatever to sell any land in the grave-yard, to which the churchwarden replied that he, the rector, was in the habit of doing so "every week in his life." After a considerable amount of bickering had passed between the different parties implicated in the affair, the Archdeacon at last succeeded in patching up the affair.

The case of the refusal of the other churchwarden to allow the communion-plate to be used, was then gone into. The complaint having been explained by the curate, the Rev. R. H. Ware, Mr. St. Aubyn, the rector, who appeared to differ from his curate in many things, informed the Archdeacon that he considered Mr. Ware was by no means without blame in the matter, as he had denounced the churchwarden from the communion-table, for having denied the use of the communion-plate to the congregation; and it was not to be supposed that any man could receive a provocation of such a description without being naturally exasperated by it. "It was," he continued, "evidently under feeling of great irritation, caused by treatment of the kind, which caused Mr. Ricketts to write the so-called slanderous letter; and he thought Mr. Ware was exceedingly faulty in the course he had undertaken. The churchwarden excused himself by stating that he had left home on the morning in question, taking his keys with him, or, when Mr. Ware sent for the communion-plate, he would not have refused it. This, again, was contradicted by two members of the

congregation. One, a person of respectability, said he had had a personal interview with the churchwarden on the subject of the administration of the communion a few days before, and Mr. Ricketts had then informed him that he totally objected to the sacrament being administered on saints' days, *because it tended to increase the expenses*, and he was determined to put a stop to it if he could." With some difficulty the Venerable Archdeacon at last succeeded in patching up a peace between the contending parties in this case also, and the meeting terminated.

We would put it to our readers whether it would be possible for such unseemly disputes to be waged without serious injury to the interests of the Church? They tend, it is clear, to bring it into disrepute, and furnish a subject for rejoicing among its enemies. Among the Roman Catholics animosities and jealousies on points of discipline and organization are common enough, but at any rate they have the good taste to keep their differences of opinion to themselves, and present a fair front to the world. The Nonconformists again, if they have dissensions among themselves, usually conceal them with care from the outer world. With the clergy and members of the Church of England, on the other hand, there appears frequently to exist a morbid desire to thrust the most insignificant disputes before the public, little considering, in the gratification of their personal anger, how great a mischief they are doing to the Establishment. The investigation of the dispute we have alluded to was carried on before a crowded meeting, and duly published to the world in the next day's papers.

It must be admitted that during the last twenty years the Church of England in Plymouth has made a great advance in power and popularity. Unhappily, the disputes perpetually arising among her clergy and within her pale have continually weakened her influence for good, and diminished the force of the impulse originally given by the Bishop in his appeal to the public and his speeches in the House of Lords. Hence it happens that, although the Church has lengthened her cords and strengthened her stakes in the three towns of Plymouth, Devonport, and Stonehouse, the Nonconformists have equalled, if not surpassed, her in the race. Whenever the Bishop has been called upon to consecrate a new church, one new Dissenting chapel at least has been opened. If the Church of England can now show in Plymouth twelve places of worship, the Nonconformists can show twenty-two, and the majority with large and even crowded congregations, besides a Roman Catholic cathedral and a Jewish synagogue. If there are seventeen clergymen employed in the service of the Church, there are at the same time twenty-four Dissenting ministers among the Nonconformists, besides a host of lay-agents as warmly interested in the success of their particular denomination as the ministers themselves. Again, even at the present time there are more Dissenting chapels under course of erection than Church of England places of worship. Two of these, one for the Independents, the other for the Wesleyans, are of great size, and are, moreover, splendid specimens of architectural design. A singular change seems within the last thirty years to have come over the different Dissenting sects in their ideas of ecclesiastical architecture. That original attribute of Nonconformity, want of taste, or absolute ugliness in the design of their chapels, appears utterly to have vanished, and a respect for the beautiful, fully equal to that to be found in our own churches, is rapidly supplying its place.

In Devonport and Stonehouse affairs are hardly more favourable for the Church of England than they are in Plymouth. In Devonport, including the Dockyard chapel and the military chapel and schools in the new barracks, there are but ten churches and chapels of ease, with fourteen clergymen attached to them, while on the other hand, we find no fewer than seventeen Nonconformist places of worship, with as many Ministers, besides a Roman Catholic church. In Stonehouse, including the Royal Naval Hospital chapel, there are but three Church of England places of worship, each with one clergyman, while there are double the number of Dissenting chapels with seven or eight ministers. Almost all the Dissenting denominations are to be found represented in Plymouth, the Wesleyans being the most numerous, indeed in almost all towns in the diocese of Exeter they muster in great numbers, and are invariably among the most respectable and well ordered portion of the population. In the three towns of Plymouth, Devonport, and Stonehouse, they have no fewer than seven chapels, most of them with large congregations. The Independents come after the Wesleyans, having six chapels, as well as a large college, well supported, for the education of their ministers, at Mannamade, a short distance from Plymouth. The Baptists rank next, having four chapels. The others are comprised of the Primitive Methodists (three chapels), the Calvinists (three

chapels), the Moravians, Unitarians, and other sects making up the remainder.

But we have not yet given the full amount of Nonconformity existing in Plymouth. The Plymouth Brethren refuse to be recognised, either as a sect or party, but claim to be a union of all Protestant creeds. They refuse, indeed, to accept the title by which they are commonly known. They originally commenced their operations in Ireland, principally in the neighbourhood of Dublin, but as their first general meeting of any magnitude took place in Plymouth, they have ever since been known to the public by their present designation, although they term themselves simply "the Brethren." Few religious movements ever began on purer principles than this, and it is but justice to admit they have effected a vast amount of good—preaching the Gospel in localities where the voice of the preacher had never before been heard. For some years their doctrines spread with wonderful rapidity, indeed, over the whole of the South of England. Even at the present time they are to be found in great numbers, and possessing much influence, although, from the difference of opinion on abstruse theological subjects, which has of late years arisen among them, their organization has been destroyed and their power greatly crippled. From the extremity of Cornwall to the most eastern part of Kent, and extending north even to the midland counties, are still to be found their teachers—kind-hearted, charitable, and energetic men,—occasionally possessing great powers of oratory, combined with considerable learning. Nor is this to be wondered at, for at their original formation they entertained the most liberal principles. One of their great objects seems to have been the destruction of sectarianism; and they started with the impression that in the end they would be able to collect all those who "professed and called themselves Christians" into one fold. They enlisted rapidly into their ranks men of almost all Christian denominations, with the exception of Roman Catholics. Clergymen of the Church of England, many of them of great piety and learning, joined them in considerable numbers, and in still greater proportion recruits from the different Dissenting denominations. Many members of the learned professions also joined them, and they were especially fortunate in recruiting into their ranks a number of medical men. Medical practitioners occasionally appear to possess a greater power in riveting the attention of the working classes than even the clergy themselves. They are better acquainted with their manner of thinking, and, from the continual habit of associating and conversing with them, they acquire the power of addressing them in language they can understand, without descending to that childish phraseology which many well-intentioned persons make use of in addressing the humbler portion of the population.

While "the Brethren" confined themselves to their original intention of uniting all in one common body of Christians, their success was of the most marked description; but now the difference of opinion existing among them on doctrinal points has considerably marred their power. They are still very numerous, but they do not seem to increase in numbers, and their influence, at the same time, appears to be gradually diminishing. The main peculiarity which marked their original organization—that of "a desire to stand together in heart and action on God's ground for the union of his people," if it be not lost—is vastly deteriorated from their indulging in the very error they profess to avoid. They are now as a flock of sheep without a shepherd. They are ignorant of their own numbers, or the working of their own people in other towns than their own. Their leaders, instead of exerting themselves in the cause of religion, in the admirable manner shown by them at the commencement of the movement, now seem to occupy themselves in writing polemical tracts against each other. One singular fact connected with the Plymouth Brethren ought especially to be noticed—that they not only sprang up into power and notoriety in the diocese of Exeter during the time Dr. Philpotts has been its bishop, but even in the present day they are more influential in the three towns of Plymouth, Exeter, and Torquay, in which he has laboured so hard to establish his peculiarly dogmatic views on religious subjects, than in any other part of the United Kingdom.

FINE ARTS.

MUSIC.

THE crowning event of the musical season, the production of Meyerbeer's "*L'Africaine*" at the Royal Italian Opera, is promised for this evening, one week only before the close of the establishment. Our notice of the performance will appear next week.

At Her Majesty's Theatre, Verdi's "*Un Ballo in Maschera*" has been revived, chiefly, it would seem, for the re-appearance of Mdlle. Sarolta in the part of the Page. This lady, who was heard here some few years since, has considerable merits, both vocal and dramatic, although scarcely sufficient to entitle her to any very prominent position amidst the number of excellent artists now assembled here. The best performances were those of Madame Trebelli as Ulrica, Madame Harriers-Wippen as Amelia, and Mr. Santley as Renato—Signor Carrion, as Riccardo, by no means compensating for the absence of Signor Giuglini. Another revival at the same establishment was that of "*Semiramide*" on Tuesday last, which event, it seems, is to compensate for the non-production, at least during this season, of Wagner's "*Tannhäuser*." It would be difficult to imagine a greater antithesis than that offered by these two works—the one full of Southern luxuriance and ornate melody; the other, of cold and formal declamation and unmelodic hardness. In spite of its many shortcomings as a grand heroic opera, "*Semiramide*" will always please from its rich tunefulness and the unmistakable power which characterizes it; although dramatic propriety is frequently violated by musical prettiness and meretricious ornament in situations requiring grandeur and elevation. Amidst all this, however, there are frequent signs of the coming "Tell," that marvellous composition in which Rossini's musical principles and taste seem to have undergone an almost entire transformation, and to have risen to a dignified earnestness and truth of dramatic expression which could scarcely have been predicted from any of his previous works. "*Semiramide*," therefore, as the last of Rossini's Italian operas, and the turning-point (if that can be said of so complete a change of style) in his career, will always possess a high interest. Its present performance at Her Majesty's Theatre displays many points of high excellence. Mdlle. Titiens, although, perhaps, heard to greater advantage in German music than in the florid and ornate Italian school, gives great force and dignity to the part of Semiramide by her dramatic earnestness and declamatory power. Perhaps the most perfect performance was the Arsace of Madame Trebelli, to whose facile and suave vocalization the music is so admirably suited. The other characters were fairly well filled by Signori Stagno, Agnesi, and Marcello Junca. The brilliant and tuneful, but thoroughly inappropriate, overture displayed the orchestra to great advantage, and the choruses maintained the high character which they have earned during the present season. This house will doubtless remain open for several weeks longer, with the usual series of "extra nights," the subscription season having already terminated.

THE LONDON THEATRES.

THE low intellectual level of our present theatrical audiences is proved, to some degree, by their patient endurance of a wretched piece of dramatic slop-work, called "*The Toodles*," which has been produced at the Adelphi Theatre. The only object of this production is to show Mr. Owens, the new American comedian, in a fit of stage drunkenness. This drunkenness, with all its extravagant pantomimic business, is only second-hand, after all, being copied from a performance of the late Mr. Burton, of New York. The entertainments at this house are rather monotonous. Mr. Toole is savagely drunk in the first piece, Mr. Owens is chronically and feebly drunk in the second piece, and conventionally drunk in the third piece. Mr. Owens's appearance as Mr. Toodles is the mistake of an undoubtedly clever actor.

A new farce by Messrs. Brough and Halliday, called "*The Mudborough Election*," has been produced at the Prince of Wales's Theatre, and, as its title implies, it is a timely sketch intended to satirise some of the worst features of elections. The dialogue and incidents are amusing, but the acting is more remarkable for violence than humour.

On Tuesday night, Mr. Boucicault's excellent Irish drama, "*Arrah-na-Pogue*," completed its hundredth night, with every sign of undiminished popularity. The acting and stage-management are steady and admirable, and the author finds the advantage of having worked on a plot wholly of his own invention in the fact that no one can produce a colourable imitation of the drama.

Mr. Buckstone took his annual benefit at the Haymarket Theatre on Wednesday night, and with it closed his season. In the speech which he delivered in the course of the evening, he promised the audience a new comedy on the 25th of September, by Mr. Leicester Buckingham, in which Mr. and Mrs. Charles Mathews will play the principal parts, and a new comedy by Mr. Oxenford. Mr. Sothorn will not return to the theatre until Christmas; and the house will be opened by Mr. Walter Montgomery at the end of this month, for a short season of four or five weeks.

SCIENCE.

THE discovery of the remarkable fossil, *Eozoon Canadense*, which we recorded some time ago, has led to a very extensive and angry controversy between Dr. Carpenter and Professor King as to the origin of the appearances which this relic of pre-historic life presents under the microscope. Dr. Carpenter, who has given a very admirable account of the organization of the fossil in question, refers *Eozoon* to the class Rhizopoda. His specimens, which were submitted to the examination of the Fellows of the Royal Society, and which we have had the pleasure of observing

ourselves, afford ample proof of the animal character of the structure. The belief that Eozoon is a fossil member of the *Amaba* group has been almost universally accepted by scientific men in this country and abroad, but in Ireland it has provoked the scepticism of an English Professor who holds a chair in the Queen's College, Galway. Professor King considers that the appearances presented by sections of the *Eozoon* do not warrant the conclusion that the structure is of animal origin. According to him, the so-called fossil is merely the result of something which he terms "mineral segregation." His assertion was first conveyed to the public in a letter addressed to the *Reader*, and elicited a very pungent reply from Dr. Carpenter. Shortly afterwards Mr. King addressed a second letter to the paper referred to, in which, among other silly remarks, was one to the effect that he had no desire to vanquish Dr. Carpenter. The latter gentleman has, however, just shown us that Professor King endeavoured to "vanquish" him upon a former occasion by a display of considerable "audacity," and desires readers to be cautious in accepting the rash assertions which the Galway Professor has been known to indulge in. Mr. King found it necessary at one time to confess his error in opposing Dr. Carpenter's observations.

The consumption of fuel in France is the subject of a paper which has been recently read to the French Academy by M. Becquerel, who gives some very curious particulars regarding the quantity of fuel consumed at various periods, both for domestic and manufacturing purposes. He tells us that, under the Consular period, from 1801 to 1804, the consumption of wood was the most considerable; it fell materially under the Imperial era, rose again under the Restoration, and declined again from 1826 to 1834. The fall continued until 1848 to such an extent as to cause much anxiety to landed proprietors; but from that period a rise began which has ever since continued. The consumption of charcoal increases in proportion to the population, because the poor find it cheaper than sea-coal. Nevertheless, the consumption of the latter has rapidly increased. In 1821, when pit-coal was not in common use for domestic purposes, the amount of wood consumed was equivalent to 2.5 quintals of pure carbon. This quantity has been constantly diminishing, so that in 1861 it was only represented by an equivalent of 0.687 of a quintal of pure carbon, the difference having evidently been made up by pit-coal. Now, if, says M. Becquerel, the production of the latter were by any chance to decline, it would become necessary to fetch wood from a great distance in order to satisfy the wants of the capital, and its price would, consequently, experience a rise; but, were the clearing of forests to continue on the same scale as at present, the price of wood would be exorbitant in a very short time. The great consumption of charcoal induces landed proprietors to cut their wood every fifteen or sixteen years, and even oftener, instead of every eighteen or twenty years, in order to get more wood fit for charcoal, and more bark—the price of which has doubled. Great Britain has only 2 per cent. of forest land; Spain only 3 per cent.; France has still 16.7 per cent.; but, if things continue on the present footing, a few years will reduce it to the condition of these countries.

The *Geological Magazine* has undergone a change of editorship, which may possibly result in the improvement of this periodical. The former editor, Professor Rupert Jones, is no longer connected with it, his place being taken by his late assistant, Mr. Woodward. Two new editors are also placed upon the journal, whose names alone afford a guarantee of good science—they are, Professor Morris, of University College, and Mr. Robert Etheridge, of the Jermyn-street School of Mines.

Dr. Adams continues his explorations in search of remains of the Maltese fossil elephant. Recently he was fortunate enough to discover some more relics of this curious animal in several new localities. He has met with its teeth in great quantities in a cavern near Crendi. In another gap, evidently at one time the bed of a torrent, he has found the teeth and bones of thirty more individuals. These skeletons of elephants are met with, jammed between large blocks of stones, in a way that clearly shows that the carcasses must have been hurled into their present situation by violent floods or freshes. Dr. Adams has now almost completed the skeleton of this wonderful little representative of an order of quadrupeds to which we had, until the fossil Maltese elephant appeared, applied the term gigantic. It seems from Dr. Adams's inquiries that the pigmy fossil elephant of Malta did not exceed the height of a small pony.

The Abbé Laborde has been investigating the spectrum produced by the lightning flash, and states, as the result of his experiments, that he has seen on three or four occasions the several bright lines of which the spectrum is composed. The lines seen are all of a dull white or lead colour, but one of them is always more distinct than the others, and is sometimes the only one observed; this line appears to be situated close to Fraunhofer's line E.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

THE EQUITY AND LAW LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

WE have received the Fourth Quinquennial Report of the Directors of this not large but respectable and successful

office. The balance-sheet and accounts furnish all the information which can be required to enable the public, the shareholders, or the policy-holders, to judge of the position of the society. The directors in their report explicitly state the method which has been pursued in valuing the liabilities of the society, and the whole surplus is, as we think, properly divided amongst the parties entitled to it, and not reserved to swell future bonus additions, and thus in part withheld from those whose contributions have created it. The society has attained a position, and appears to be conducted on principles which give it a claim to public confidence, and will ensure for it an increasing ratio of credit, progress, and prosperity.

There are, however, some parts of the Report which we think it may be useful to criticise.

The directors notice that the profit on those policies which do not themselves participate in profits exceeds the portion of profit which is appropriated to the shareholders. If the directors intend by this to console the policy-holders for losing that share of the profits (one-tenth) which is appropriated to the shareholders, we do not think they have made the attempt on tenable ground; for the society might have issued the same policies if it had been a mutual one, and the members might have had all the profits arising from these non-participating policies as well as from their own, instead of getting only nine-tenths of them. The grounds on which the employment of capital in a Life Assurance Office, and the consequent withdrawal of a portion of the profits from the members can be defended successfully, if at all, lie in other directions.

We observe next that a portion (£2,400) of the total surplus of £72,357.17s. 7d. is "appropriated to reduce the price at which the society's house stands in the books." This suggests the question whether or not, before this appropriation of this portion of the surplus, the society's house stood in the society's books, and figured as an asset in the balance-sheet at more than its real value. If it did, it should not have so stood; and its so standing is a flaw in the balance-sheet. If it did not, this appropriation of £2,400 in reduction of its value appears a purely gratuitous mode of withdrawing a portion of the surplus from division amongst policy and share holders.

Lastly, we utterly fail to understand the method or plan by which the surplus applicable to bonus additions is distributed. This failure is, we are persuaded, not due to any intention on the part of the directors to be unintelligible, or to suppress their mode of distribution; and we would rather, if our position as journalists and critics allowed of the possibility of such a supposition, attribute the failure to our own density of apprehension. But even in this case we would suggest, as not impossible, that some other persons, desirous of enlightenment might be equally dense.

The passage to which we allude runs as follows in the Report:—

"In distributing the above sum among the assured, care has been taken to adjust equitably the shares of persons insuring at different periods in the Society's existence. A somewhat larger bonus will be given to the persons who insured many years ago, than to persons who have insured at the same age more recently; but this difference is proportioned to the larger profit derived in the former case; and no advantage is given to the oldest assured at the expense of the more recent. A larger bonus will be also given to those persons who chose the reversionary bonus at former divisions, than to those who have received the value of the former bonuses in cash, or reduction of premium.

The principle on which the distribution has been made will be better understood when it is stated that the average rate of interest at which the funds of the society (including the unproductive assets) have been improved during the last five years, has been £4. 8s. per cent. per annum, after deduction of Income-tax. In all the valuations it has been assumed that three per cent. only would be realized; and the profit from this source upon the amount of the funds on 31st December, 1859, forms a considerable sum, of which persons who have insured subsequently, have contributed no part."

In this we see pretty clearly what the directors have attempted to avoid and what to attain, but when they say that "the principle on which the distribution has been made will be better understood when it is stated," &c., we answer that we did not understand it at all, and that we believe it had not been stated, when the directors commenced to make us understand it "better;" and that the directors, in attempting to make us understand it better, have only pointed out a certain source of profit, and have not stated how the profits are distributed.

The directors of this office have shown, however, so good a disposition to comply with those requirements for a plain and intelligible disclosure of the true state of a life insurance office, which we have on so many occasions insisted on on behalf of the public, that we do not doubt but that they will take our

criticism in good part, and on the earliest occasion inform us and our clients on what plan they distribute their surplus amongst their participating policy-holders.

JOINT-STOCK SPECULATIONS: THEIR VALUE AND PROSPECTS.

NO. IV.—MARINE INSURANCE AND LAND COMPANIES.

THE two classes of joint-stock enterprise with which we have this week to deal differ widely from each other in their objects, though both owe their existence, with a very few exceptions, to the wise and liberal spirit which has marked our recent legislation. The restrictions previously imposed on undertakings of this kind rendered the application of associated capital almost impossible to both, and before 1861 we find only one Land Company, and only four Marine Insurance Companies. Indeed, so tenacious has been the spirit of monopoly, and such favour has it found in the eyes of the Legislature, that prior to the year 1824 only two companies—the London Assurance Corporation and the Royal Exchange—were permitted by Royal charter to incur marine risks. In that year, however, their monopoly was repealed by Act of Parliament, and the Indemnity Mutual Marine Insurance Company, and the Alliance Marine Insurance Company, were started. Twelve years afterwards, in 1836, came the Marine Insurance Company. So that, from the year 1720, in which the London Assurance Corporation was established, till 1824, only two companies transacted this kind of insurance, which was consequently, for the most part, left in the hands of individuals, thus depriving merchants and shipowners of the greater security which a company, with a large capital to fall back upon, of course affords. Since the passing of the Limited Liability Act, at least sixteen Marine Insurance Companies have been established; and though some of them, as will be seen by the subjoined table, show a decrease in their market value upon the paid-up capital, the majority show a decided increase. It is quite possible that those whose position in the market is not thus far favourable, may recover themselves and become profitable investments. The operations of the Indemnity and the Marine, two of the old companies, were for some years unfavourable, but eventually they made good their position, showing an increase of market value in the current month—the Indemnity of £1,089,693, upon a paid-up capital of £672,650; and the Marine of £722,500 upon a paid-up capital of £180,000. Of course the new companies have the disadvantage of having to compete with the old ones, all of which have been marked successes. But, on the other hand, their prospects are hopeful when we consider the immense increase of mercantile operations, and the inclination of shipowners and merchants to insure rather with companies than with individuals. It is not at all unlikely that private underwriters will give way, as private bankers have done, before the joint-stock principle. All their business will, in time, come into the hands of companies; and it is also to be observed that if the new companies have to contend against the old ones, the latter have also to contend against the new. That the old companies have felt the force of this competition may be presumed from the fact that their shares are not this year quoted at the same value as they were in July 1864. Thus, the Alliance shares are now quoted at £36 against £46 last year; the Indemnity at £125 to £127, against £143 to £145; and the Marine at £87 to £88, against £96 to £96. 10s. If we turn to the table of the new companies, we find that upon a paid-up capital of £20,000, the Bristol Marine shows a market value in the current month of £26,250; the British and Foreign Marine a market value of £218,750 upon a paid-up capital of £100,000; the Empire Marine, £250,000 upon £200,000; the London and Caledonian, £105,000 upon £100,000; the London and Provincial, £162,500 upon £100,000; the Ocean Marine, £960,000 upon £200,000; the Thames and Mersey Marine, £750,000 upon £200,000; the Union Marine, £362,500 upon £200,000; the Universal Marine, £287,500 upon £250,000.

The truth is that the very narrow limits within which operations in marine insurance had been confined prior to 1861, left the field of enterprise comparatively unoccupied. The great success of some of the companies we have just named shows a position so far superior to any of the joint-stock enterprises we have hitherto examined, that, with the increase of commerce and the decay of private firms of underwriters, there can be little doubt that there is yet room for the further application of the joint-stock principles to this class of insurance by new companies. But in marine insurance, though

the profits are large, and though more insurances are effected every year, the success of a company depends in an especial manner on good management. There is positively no other kind of business in which so much skill and practical knowledge is required to avoid dangerous risks and consequent losses. A good underwriter will make a prosperous office, while an inferior one will bring his office to grief, by venturing on unsafe risks, which a better knowledge of the special dangers of various trades and voyages would have enabled him to avoid.

With regard to the Land Companies, they are still in their infancy, and it is as yet impossible to predict what their ultimate success may be. As far as it is revealed by the subjoined table, the prospects are not hopeful. Of the fourteen companies, however, in our list, seven are either Irish or colonial, and one international—all except one showing a decrease in their market value, as compared with their paid-up capital. Of the six remaining companies, four show an increase. But as, with a single exception, the whole of these companies have been established since 1861, and as they do not enter upon a field of operations which—as in the case of banking and insurance companies—has been governed by established principles of trade, their present position is not so reliable a test of their value, as the present position of a banking or an insurance company.

The obstructions in the way of making land a marketable commodity have been until of late practically insuperable. While it is the most permanent of all securities, with a tendency to increase in value, and so to become a better security, it has been hampered with restrictions which have made its transfer a work both of such peril and cost that its ownership may almost be said to have been as stationary as itself. It was not until the passing of the Land Registration Act that the main difficulty in the way of bringing land into the market was removed—for those who choose to avail themselves of the provisions of that Act. Before it passed, the transfer of landed property was a monopoly in the hands of the solicitors; and not the least of the services which Lord Westbury has rendered us by his law reforms, is the success with which he confronted and bore down their opposition to this most useful measure. Under its provisions, titles can be registered, and the interminable investigations and interminable bills of costs, which were previously incident to the sale of the smallest portion of an estate, can be superseded by a voucher from the Registration Office. This Bill has recently been supplemented by the new Debenture Act, one of the last achievements of the late Parliament, which enables companies with adequate capital to issue debentures charged on landed security. An immense advantage is thus conferred upon borrowers of large sums. It enables them to avail themselves of the capital of many lenders instead of one. Previous to this Act, a man wanting to borrow £100,000 on his estate had but a very limited market to apply to. Now he can negotiate with a company for the whole sum, and the company can take the money from the public by issuing a separate debenture bond charged on his property to each lender, so that a "capitalist" whose whole possession amounts only to £10 can obtain landed security for his money, instead of being driven to invest it in doubtful security, or to keep it in his pocket.

No doubt there is much to be done before the two Acts we have mentioned are productive to the community of all the advantages of which they are capable. The solicitors, beaten in the Legislature, are still strong in the family; and they will oppose with every effort in their power the resolving of a host of profitable title-deeds—profitable to them—into the simple and final title which can be obtained under the Registration Act. But this despotism will not last. Landowners will not see their neighbours enfranchised from bills of costs, and able to deal with their land almost as easily as they can deal with a bank-note, without one day becoming restive and shaking the family solicitor off their shoulders. The effects of recent legislation will then be seen in the simplification of title by registration, in the consequent facility of bringing it into the market, and in the ease with which its owners will be able to raise money upon it. This alone will tend to increase its value. But it will also enable it to share more largely than hitherto in the increased prosperity of the country. It is natural to an Englishman to desire to become the possessor of a portion of his native soil. The emigrant returning from the colony where he has made his wealth, to spend the rest of his days in England, will seek to invest his money in a farm or in pleasure-grounds, which he can call his own. And as these causes continue to operate, as the population and wealth of the country grow with its years, and as by no possibility can the quantity of land be increased,

it follows that the facility of transferring it will immensely add to its value. No companies, then, can have better prospects of profit and success—and none can give better security to lenders and investors—than Land Companies, if they are only managed with ordinary skill and judgment. Our readers will observe from the table that the Registered Land Limited, whose direct object is to realize for the public the benefits of recent legislation, has, though but very recently established, made an increase in the market value of its shares of £18,750 upon a paid-up capital of £62,500. This is a sure evidence that the measures we have above referred to have been wise and beneficial. And we look with certainty to see in their development an immense stimulus to safe and healthy enterprise.

MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

Name.	Paid-up Capital.	Market Value in July.	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£	£	£
*Alliance Marine	250,000	390,000	140,000	...
*Indemnity Mutual Marine	672,650	1,762,343	1,089,693	...
*London Assurance Corporation ..	448,275	1,658,617	1,210,342	...
*Marine Insurance	180,000	902,500	722,500	...
Total	1,550,925	4,713,460	3,162,535	...
Albion Marine, Limited	100,000	75,000	...	25,000
Bristol Marine Insurance, Limited	20,000	26,250	6,250	...
British & Foreign Marine, Limited	100,000	218,750	118,750	...
Empire Marine Insurance Com- pany, Limited	200,000	250,000	50,000	...
English and Scottish Marine, Lim.	50,000	47,500	...	2,500
London and Caledonian Marine Insurance, Limited	100,000	105,000	5,000	...
London and Provincial Marine ...	100,000	162,500	62,500	...
Maritime Insurance, Limited	100,000	75,000	...	25,000
Mercantile Manure, Limited	50,000	31,250	...	18,750
National Provincial Marine, Lim.	50,000	35,000	...	15,000
Ocean Marine Insurance	200,000	960,000	760,000	...
Oriental and General Marine In- surance	100,000
Sea & River Marine Insurance, Lim.	25,000
Thames and Mersey Marine In- surance, Limited	200,000	750,000	550,000	...
Union Marine Insurance, Limited	200,000	362,500	162,500	...
Universal Marine Insurance, Lim.	250,000	287,500	37,500	...
Total	1,845,000	3,386,150	1,752,500	86,250

* Established before 1861.

LAND COMPANIES.

Name.	Paid up Capital.	Market Value in July.	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£	£	£
*Van Dieman's Land	256,000	85,500	...	171,000
British American Land	252,500	150,000	...	102,000
British Land	120,000	232,500	112,500	...
Cannock Chase and Ogleby Land, Limited	70,000	65,000	...	5,000
Irish Land Company	185,000	175,000	...	10,000
International Land Credit	1,800,000	1,575,000	...	225,000
Italian Land	300,000	270,000	...	30,000
Land Credit of Ireland	50,000	55,000	5,000	...
Land Securities, Limited	100,000	80,000	...	20,000
London Bridge Land, Limited ..	30,000	33,000	3,000	...
London County Land and Build- ing, Limited	50,000	62,500	12,500	...
Natal Land & Colonization, Lim.	112,500	90,000	...	22,500
Nova Scotia Gold & Land, Lim.	37,500	26,250	...	11,250
Registered Land, Limited	62,500	81,250	18,750	...
West Worthing Investment	18,000
Total	3,187,500	2,895,500	151,750	425,750

* Established before 1861.

The quotation of gold at Paris is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is $25\frac{1}{2}$ per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is rather more than one-tenth per cent. dearer in Paris than in London.

By advices from Hamburg the price of gold is $428\frac{1}{2}$ per mark, and the short exchange on London is $13\frac{7}{8}$ per £1 sterling. Standard gold at the English Mint price is, therefore, about two-tenths per cent. dearer in London than in Hamburg.

The course of exchange at New York on London for bills at 60 days' sight is about 109 per cent. At this rate there is no profit on the importation of gold from the United States.

Foreign Stocks, in some cases, were rather lower, but there has been no general reduction. The home railways have been sensibly depressed, especially Lancashire and Yorkshire, Metropolitan and Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire. The fall in the latter was

caused by the announcement of a very disappointing dividend. The shares of some of the financial companies are likewise declining.

The English funds remain quiet, and the markets are altogether inactive, the general transactions becoming more and more restricted, as is usually the case at this period of the year. Rumours are in circulation as to the amalgamation of high standing firms.

The committee of the Stock Exchange appointed Thursday, July 20, a special settling day in the 50,000 preference shares of the Atlantic Telegraph recently issued by the Crédit Mobilier and Foncier (Limited). These shares are already quoted in the official lists. The committee have also allowed the shares of the Dagenham (Thames) Dock Company (Limited) to be marked in the twice-a-week list.

The half-yearly meeting of the shareholders in the London and Westminster Bank was held on the 19th, Mr. Alderman Salomons, M.P., presiding. The report presented stated that, after making provision for all bad and doubtful debts, paying the income-tax, and setting apart £2,000 towards the buildings of the bank, the net profits of the bank for the last half-year amount to £151,498 7s. 8d. This sum, added to £9,357 1s. 5d., the unappropriated balance of the preceding half-year, will amount to £160,855 9s. 1d. Out of this amount interest on the rest of surplus fund, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum (£8,250), has been added to that fund, which now amounts to £338,250. The directors now declare a dividend to the shareholders at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum, and, by way of further dividend out of the profits, a bonus of 10 per cent. on the paid up capital. After these payments are made there will remain a balance of £22,605 9s. 1d. to be carried to the profit and loss account for the current half-year.

The Union Bank of Australia have invited tenders on the 1st of August next for £500,000 Six per Cent. Debentures of the colony of Queensland, being part of a loan of £1,019,000 authorized by the local Legislature for immigration and public works. A payment of 10 per cent. will be required on allotment, and the remainder on the 12th of October. The debt of the colony previously to the authorization of this loan was £831,236.

The London and County Bank and its branches, and Messrs. Prescott, Grote, & Co., are authorized to receive subscriptions for shares in the Accidental and Marine Insurance Corporation (Limited). The company has been formed to take over the business of the Accidental Death Insurance Company. The capital proposed is £2,000,000, in 80,000 shares of £25 each, with a first issue of 40,000 shares, on which £1 per share is to be paid on application and £4 on allotment, and the prospectus intimates that no further call is contemplated. For every two shares of £5, with £1 paid held by the proprietors of the Accidental Death Insurance Company, there is to be given a certificate of one share of the "Accidental and Marine Insurance Corporation (Limited)," with £5 paid. This will absorb 10,000 shares, the remaining 30,000 being offered to the public.

In Colonial Government securities there has been a fair amount of business, Canadian securities being specially in demand at improved quotations. Canada Six per cents. (Jan. and July, 1877-84) were dealt in at 99 8; do. (Feb. and August), 100; do. (March and Sept.), 99; Five per cents. (Jan. and July), 85; do. Inscribed Stock, 83; New South Wales Five per cents. (1888-92), 90 1/4; Queensland Six per cents., 102 1/4 3; Victoria Six per cents. (April and October), 110 1/4 1/2.

In new undertakings we have the following quotations:—Metropolis Sewage, $1\frac{1}{2}$ 2 prem.; Overend, Gurney, & Co., $1\frac{1}{2}$ 1/2 prem.; Atlantic Telegraph Preference, $\frac{1}{2}$ 1/2 prem.; Russian Ironworks, 9 10 prem.; Albert Bridge $1\frac{1}{2}$ 1/2 prem.; Dalbeattie Granite, 2 1/2 prem.; Blakely Ordnance, 3 1/2 4 prem.; Hop and Malt Exchange, $1\frac{1}{2}$ 2 prem.; Parkfield Iron, $1\frac{1}{2}$ 1/2 prem.; Bastow and Co., $\frac{3}{4}$ 1 1/2 prem.; Glamorgan Iron, $2\frac{1}{2}$ 1/2 prem.; North Rancie Iron, $1\frac{1}{2}$ 1/2 prem.

The biddings for 25,00,000 rupees in bills on India took place on Wednesday at the Bank of England. The proportions allotted were—to Calcutta, 17,76,000 rupees; Madras, 2,24,000 rupees; and to Bombay, 5,50,000 rupees. The minimum price was as before, 1s. 10 1/2 d. on Calcutta and Madras, and 1s. 10 1/2 d. on Bombay. Tenders on Calcutta and Madras at 1s. 11 1/2 d. will receive about 54 per cent., and on Bombay at 2s. in full.

THE HIGH PRICE OF MEAT.—The price of meat has reached a point which may fairly be termed alarming, and which makes it almost inaccessible to a considerable portion of the middle and working classes. Nor is there any very strong hope that this evil will be remedied for some time to come, for, according to the most trustworthy calculations, meat is more likely to become dearer than cheaper, and the forthcoming winter may possibly witness what may be justly termed a famine price for it. There are several causes which have contributed to bring about this untoward state of things. First and foremost is the severe drought of last year; secondly, the increased demand mainly arising from the improved condition of the working classes; and thirdly, the disease amongst the cattle, which has been more prevalent than is acknowledged, and which has carried off a great many head of oxen, especially milch cows. The main cause of the present scarcity of meat was, no doubt, the drought of last year, which was more destructive in its results than is generally recognised. The young stock, which would have been gradually brought forward, according to the requirements of the markets, to satisfy the ordinary demand, were hurried to the slaughter-house long before they were really worth slaughtering. The owners of this stock, in a majority of cases, had no other alternative; it was better to get something for the stock when young, than stand the chance of losing it by starvation before it could become old. During the last autumn the great towns of Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, and other large populations in the north, had an abundance of young calf-meat, for it was unworthy the name of veal; but this arose from the circumstance that the greater number of these half-formed and scarcely-developed animals were disposed of for as many shillings as they would have fetched pounds had there been food for enabling them to approach maturity.—Observer.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

MR. RUSKIN'S LECTURES.*

EARNESTNESS is one of the most prominent characteristics of all Mr. Ruskin's writings; and earnestness is to be seen and felt in every line of the little book which he designates by the fantastic and symbolical title of "Sesame and Lilies." But earnestness, though in itself an excellent virtue, is very apt, if the mind be not thoroughly well balanced, to run into unreasonableness and intolerance. That it does so in the case of Mr. Ruskin, one cannot read many pages of his works without perceiving. No man has braver thoughts than he, nobler and purer feelings, or greater wealth of imagery and fanciful illustration; and no man more provokingly contrives to discredit all by violence, extravagance, over-statement, and half-statement. Much the same tendencies may be observed in his very style, simply considered from a literary point of view. It is singularly rich and gorgeous—often most suggestive, and frequently passing into a throb and cadence that have the very tune of poetry; but it is wanting in self-restraint, is at times overloaded with ornament, to the extent of confusion and glare, and is altogether too emotional—we might even say hysterical—for healthy prose. It should always be borne in mind that a certain passion of language which is perfectly justifiable in poetry (since poetry does not undertake to convince) is scarcely allowable in prose, the object of which is to demonstrate, expound, and persuade. Mr. Ruskin does indeed reason at times, but he reasons through his feelings, as women generally do. We are far from saying this disrespectfully of women, because truth is very often arrived at this way, and because there can be no doubt that the greater impulsiveness of the feminine mind affords an admirable balance to the more deliberate judgments of men. But the impulsive mode of reasoning has its stumbling-blocks and its special dangers, and at any rate we expect from a male writer a more judicial mode of discussing the great questions of the day. When an author of repute undertakes to tell us that our civilization is all wrong, that political economy is all wrong, that England is not a great country, that we are blind to literature, science, art, religion, and humanity, and that, having destroyed our own land, we are rapidly destroying others, we have a right to expect from him something more than passionate outcries, exaggerated statements, and partial views of truth, and to demand that he shall really examine the several questions involved, and help us to examine them, in a spirit of inquiry, rather than in a mood of wild denunciation. Mr. Ruskin runs the risk of blinding people to the measure of truth which his denunciations really contain by the vehemence of his oratorical onslaught, which is really in itself a species of untruth. Everyone sees at a glance that he is a fanatic, not a philosopher—a fanatic with much that is noble and indisputable in his utterances, but with a fatal incapacity for perceiving that there are generally two sides to a question, that there are difficulties in the way of all arrangements, however excellent, and that the best mode of helping the world forward is by seeing in what respects the existing state of things may be amended—not by simply shrieking at it as wholly bad. It cannot be wholly bad, or there is no Divine government of the world. There never was a state of things wholly bad; and the difference between the philosopher and the fanatic is that the former calmly puts his finger on the specific errors that require reform, and shows how they may be reformed, while the latter can only lament, threaten, and ejaculate.

What chiefly strikes one in Mr. Ruskin is a want of entire sanity and self-control. He is at the mercy of his feelings, of his notions, and of his imagery. His style runs away with him, and carries him off bodily into all kinds of strange lands—sometimes, indeed, into vacuity. Hence the extreme desultoriness of his writings, and his absolute inability to keep distinctly and definitely to any subject which he starts with proposing to discuss. We have had to remark upon this from month to month in noticing his "Cestus of Aglaia" in the *Art Journal*; and precisely the same weakness is observable in these Lectures. He begins his first Lecture by undertaking to show his auditory the way in which we read books, and the way in which we "could or should read them." For a certain number of pages he goes on fairly enough, explaining (after the fashion of the present Archbishop of Dublin in his excellent books on words) the value of an intimate and exact knowledge of language—especially of our own language—in arriving at the inner spirit and force of all great authors. But after a little while we find ourselves drifting into a fierce, Carlylean denunciation of "the age," and are given to understand that there is nothing good in it. God knows there is bad enough in it, and many things that want amending, and we are as little disposed to idolise it as Mr. Ruskin or Mr. Carlyle. But then we know that there were many bad things in previous ages which we have outgrown, and that there are many good things in the present age of which previous times had but the prophecy and the hope; and all we require is that the case shall be stated fairly, and with no other object than to make clear the truth, and to advance the world yet another stage in the great progression from barbarism to a broad and equable civilisation. No doubt there is a cant of ignorant adulation; but there is also a cant of depreciation, which is even more mischievous, because it would rob us of hope itself, and make

us believe that we move backwards, and fall from worse to worse. We must not be understood to apply the word "cant" to such men as Carlyle and Ruskin. They are evidently too much in earnest to be amenable to such a reproach; but we verily believe that they have to answer for a frightful amount of shallow and insincere cynicism in those who have been infected by the virus of their style. There is something "catching" in this wild Cassandra manner. It will wash over a world of half-hearted and pretentious egotism with a look of sincerity and power, and is absolutely the greatest help that has ever been discovered for making indifference appear like earnestness, and the negation of all things like something positive and true.

An instance of Mr. Ruskin's tendency to overstatement may be found in some remarks, in his first essay, on the office of a Bishop. After reminding us that, according to the strict meaning of the word, a Bishop is a person who "oversees," he remarks that those who fill this office would much better fulfil their duties than they do if they bore in mind the radical meaning of the word. The true office of a Bishop, we are told, is not to rule:—

"It is the king's office to rule; the bishop's office is to *oversee* the flock; to number it, sheep by sheep; to be ready always to give full account of it. Now, it is clear he cannot give account of the souls, if he has not so much as numbered the bodies of his flock. The first thing, therefore, that a bishop has to do is at least to put himself in a position in which, at any moment, he can obtain the history from childhood of every living soul in his diocese, and of its present state. Down in that back street, Bill, and Nancy, knocking each other's teeth out!—Does the bishop know all about it? Has he his eye upon them? Has he *had* his eye upon them? Can he circumstantially explain to us how Bill got into the habit of beating Nancy about the head? If he cannot, he is no bishop, though he had a mitre as high as Salisbury steeple; he is no bishop,—he has sought to be at the helm instead of the masthead; he has no sight of things."

Now, had Mr. Ruskin contented himself with saying that it is the duty of a Bishop to overlook the clergy of his diocese, he would have stated what is quite indisputable—indeed, we are not aware that anybody has attempted to dispute it. But truth alone is seldom sufficient for him; he must generally compromise it by exaggeration; he has no sense of limitation—no perception of the other side. The rank absurdity of demanding that a Bishop shall know, or be able at any moment to ascertain, "the history from childhood of every living soul in his diocese, and of its present state," is its own refutation. Such a thing is impossible, or, if possible at all, only possible by a system of espionage worse than any that the most despotic continental government has yet organized. Again, in condemning the material progress and money-making habits of the present day, there is the same annoying mixture of truth and hyperbole. We are accused of having destroyed some of the most lovely spots of England by "filling them with bellowing fire," and "trampling coal ashes" into them; in other words, as we understand these figures of speech, by making factories and railroads. Of course, the desecration of the beautiful which seems to mark the course of modern inventions is a matter for sorrow with all sensitive minds. It is clearly a thing not good in itself, for ugliness is an evil. But there are still worse evils which this particular evil is apparently the only means of removing. The immense development of the national life consequent on these changes is surely leading to many good issues, and breaking up many old forms of wrong. It is quickening intelligence, diffusing knowledge, spreading the comforts and the decencies of life among classes which were hitherto strangers to them, putting an end to sectional jealousies, bringing nations nearer to one another, taking the iron mace out of the hands of despotism, striking the fetters from off the limbs of opinion, and drawing the fangs of superstition. These, we must be permitted to think, are great and good results, worth the loss even of beautiful valleys and green woodlands. We should be careful how we take our own predilections for the measure of a nation's needs. It was not unnatural for Wordsworth to write that bitter denunciatory sonnet when the railway invaded his mountain solitudes; but it was only natural inasmuch as selfishness is natural to us all.

In another matter, Mr. Ruskin seems to us to be signally unfair to his countrymen. He says we have despised art, and then, imagining himself to be reminded that we have several art exhibitions, and have established a large number of art schools, he adds:—

"Yes, truly, but all that is for the sake of the shop. You would fain sell canvas as well as coals, and crockery as well as iron; you would take every other nation's bread out of its mouth if you could; not being able to do that, your ideal of life is to stand in the thoroughfares of the world, like Ludgate apprentices, screaming to every passer-by, 'What d'ye lack?'"

It is very certain that, if we had not opened art schools and art exhibitions, Mr. Ruskin would have been the first to taunt us with our deadness to æsthetic considerations in not doing so; as we have established them, a base motive must be discovered, and so it is merely "for the sake of the shop." Nothing can be more absurdly unjust than the assertion that we are desirous of taking every other nation's bread out of its mouth. The very essential principle of Free Trade, which is now becoming the rule in all our dealings, is that of interchange—of reciprocity; indeed, the Protectionists even accuse us of injustice to our own population in admitting from abroad productions which are certain to beat our own in the same line, owing to their great superiority. Mr. Ruskin reserves some of the hottest vials of his wrath for our augmenting

* *Sesame and Lilies*. Two Lectures delivered at Manchester in 1864. By John Ruskin, M.A. I. Of Kings' Treasuries. II. Of Queens' Gardens. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

wealth; but he should recollect that it is only rich and luxurious nations which become great in literature and art. What has Norway, or Lapland, or Switzerland, done for the one or the other? Even Italy, now that she is impoverished by her inheritance in bad government, produces nothing in either. It was under her rich commercial Republics and her splendid Papal court, when the Popedom was a reality, that poetry and painting flourished.

Nevertheless, it is not to be doubted that great prosperity, with nations as with individuals, has its attendant shadows and evils. Some of these Mr. Ruskin hits as with a quivering beam of light; and, having spoken freely of what we must regard as so much petulant unfairness, we have the less hesitation in saying that there are many things in his Lectures which strike us as noble and beautiful in the extreme. We will quote one passage, in which Mr. Ruskin flames into righteous wrath and wrathful pity over a recent case of death from hunger and destitution in Spitalfields. Having given the newspaper report of the inquest (which he rather affectedly prints in red ink), he proceeds:—

“Why would witness not go into the workhouse?” you ask. Well, the poor seem to have a prejudice against the workhouse which the rich have not; for, of course, every one who takes a pension from Government goes into the workhouse on a grand scale: only the workhouses for the rich do not involve the idea of work, and should be called play-houses. But the poor like to die independently, it appears; perhaps, if we made the play-houses for them pretty and pleasant enough, or gave them their pensions at home, and allowed them a little introductory peculation with the public money, their minds might be reconciled to it. Meantime, here are the facts: we make our relief either so insulting to them, or so painful, that they rather die than take it at our hands; or, for third alternative, we leave them so untaught and foolish that they starve like brute creatures, wild and dumb, not knowing what to do, or what to ask. I say, you despise compassion; if you did not, such a newspaper paragraph would be as impossible in a Christian country as a deliberate assassination permitted in its public streets. ‘Christian’ did I say? Alas, if we were but wholesomely un-Christian, it would be impossible: it is our imaginary Christianity that helps us to commit these crimes, for we revel and luxuriate in our faith, for the lewd sensation of it; dressing it up, like everything else, in fiction. The dramatic Christianity of the organ and aisle, of dawn-service and twilight-revival—the Christianity which we do not fear to mix the mockery of, pictorially, with our play about the devil, in our Satanellas,—Roberts,—Fausts, chanting hymns through traceried windows for back-ground effect, and artistically modulating the ‘Dio’ through variation on variation of mimicked prayer: (while we distribute tracts, next day, for the benefit of uncultivated swearers, upon what we suppose to be the signification of the Third Commandment);—this gas-lighted, and gas-inspired, Christianity, we are triumphant in, and draw back the hem of our robes from the touch of the heretics who dispute it. But to do a piece of common Christian righteousness in a plain English word or deed; to make Christian law any rule of life, and found one National act or hope thereon,—we know too well what our faith comes to for that! You might sooner get lightning out of incense smoke than true action or passion out of your modern English religion. You had better get rid of the smoke, and the organ-pipes, both: leave them, and the Gothic windows, and the painted glass, to the property-man; give up your carburetted hydrogen ghost in one healthy expiration, and look after Lazarus at the doorstep. For there is a true Church wherever one hand meets another helpfully, and that is the only holy or Mother Church which ever was, or ever shall be.”

The second of the Lectures has reference to the education of women, and, together with much that is beautiful and true, contains some paradoxes, and a little too much of merely rhapsodical writing. We prefer, however, to end our notice with commendation, and will therefore conclude by saying that, however much we may be at issue with several things contained in this volume, we are sure it cannot be perused without exciting in the mind of the reader many worthy thoughts, and some not unwholesome opposition.

PLATO, AND THE OTHER COMPANIONS OF SOCRATES.*

(SECOND NOTICE.)

THE anciently received Platonic Canon maintained its authority until the close of the last century. Since that time, it has engaged the attention of the most distinguished German critics, who have each adopted some principle of arrangement more or less ingenious, and some test of authenticity depending on their peculiar views. According to Schleiermacher, the dialogues necessarily fall into three groups—the elementary, preparatory, and constructive,—forming altogether, as Mr. Grote expresses it, “a grand demiurgic universe of dialogues, each dovetailed and fitted to its special place among the whole!” On the other hand, Ast, who only admits fourteen dialogues to be genuine, considers them as “distinct philosophical dramas,” rejecting altogether the notion of a preconceived system; with him, Plato is “philosopher, poet, and artist,” blended in one. The principle of arrangement adopted by K. F. Hermann is that the dialogues represent the development and modification of Plato’s philosophical views, beginning with pure Socratism, and ending with Pythagorean tendencies. The theory of Munk is that the dialogues are intended by Plato to give “a string of artistic portraits, representing Socrates in the ascending march from youth to old age,” so that the time of each dialogue may be learned from the age which it assigns to him.

* Plato, and the other Companions of Sokrates. By George Grote, F.R.S., &c. Three vols. London: John Murray.

Mr. Grote leaves all the doctors to disagree and to refute one another, while he himself falls back upon the Thrasyllean Canon as alone trustworthy.

This readiness to accept as authentic so many of the so-called Platonic compositions, will produce a still more startling result if it be extended to the promised volume on Aristotle. But it is productive of one very interesting result in the present work—that we are not committed to any forced exegesis for reconciling the discrepancies in the dialogues. *Platonis inconstantia* had been noticed and commented on by Cicero, criticised by Aristotle and Diogenes Laertius; but we find it nowhere discussed in a freer spirit and with happier results than in the work before us. We are reminded how Plato was “sceptic, dogmatist, religious mystic and inquisitor, mathematician, philosopher, poet (erotic as well as satirical), rhetor, artist—all in one; or, at least, all in succession, throughout the fifty years of his philosophical life. . . . On the whole—to use a comparison of Plato himself—the Platonic sum-total somewhat resembles those fanciful combinations of animals imagined in the Hellenic mythology—an aggregate of distinct and disparate individualities, which look like one because they are packed in the same external wrapper.” So we are not astonished if the views in the *Phædo* and *Timæus* are inconsistent; if the *Politicus* and the *Republic*, the *Republic* and the *Leges*, do not agree together; if from the *Phædrus* we could fancy Plato bearing off the prize at the Dionysiac festival; if in the *Timæus* we find “a professed cosmical system including much mystic and oracular affirmation, without proof to support it, and without opponents to test it;” and if in the *Leges* we meet with “ethical sermons and religious fulminations, proclaimed by a dictatorial authority.”

Plato the lecturer is not a familiar figure to us, but Mr. Grote lays great stress on the probable influence of the oral teaching (*τὰ λεγόμενα ἄγραφα δόγματα*) of Plato; of which, however, we now know little or nothing, except some slight gossip about a lecture on the Supreme Good, at which the auditors, who had all their own ideas of what the Good was, were astounded to hear only a discourse upon arithmetic, geology, and astronomy, and came away with the new truth that the Good was identical with the One.

It is very tempting to accept as genuine the Platonic Epistles; besides the insight which they give or profess to give into the life of Plato, it is not the least interesting part of them where he is represented as refusing altogether to publish an authoritative exposition of his own doctrine. He really seems to have had something of the horror that many people have nowadays of committing themselves personally to any opinion, in black and white, as they say. Discussion and debate throw great light upon a subject; but when once it is written down, it loses its vitality, and cannot fight against the terrible *Elenchus*, or cross-examination, which the Socratic dialectic brought to bear on every question; and so, he says, no sensible man ever committed to writing any matters that he thought of first-rate importance. “If they really were so, and if he has published his views in writing, some evil influence must have destroyed his good sense”! (Epist. vii. 344.)

In the arrangement of the dialogues, while Mr. Grote generally accepts the list of Thrasylus, and his division into Dialogues of Investigation and Dialogues of Exposition (the two divisions corresponding to a considerable extent with the Dialectic and Demonstrative method of Aristotle), he somewhat recasts the catalogue. Of the Dialogues of Search he enumerates 19,—*Theætetus*, *Parmenides*, *Alcibiades* (2), *Theages*, *Laches*, *Lysis*, *Charmides*, *Menon*, *Ion*, *Euthyphron*, *Euthydemus*, *Gorgias*, *Hippias* (2), *Cleitophon*, *Hipparchus*, *Erastæ*, and *Minos*. The dialogues of Exposition number 14,—viz., *Timæus*, *Leges*, *Epinomis*, *Critias*, *Republic*, *Sophistes*, *Politicus*, *Phædon*, *Philebus*, *Protagoras*, *Phædrus*, *Symposium*, *Cratylus*, and *Crito*. The *Apology*, *Menexenus*, and *Epistles*, do not belong properly to either head. The Dialogues of Search represent, of course, most strikingly the peculiarities of that negative method which Plato adopted from Socrates. Disclaiming all authoritative teaching, and assuming truth to be equally unknown to all, they present a remarkable contrast to other philosophical methods. Yet such a method was inseparable from Socrates’ theory of the human mind, which suffered not so much from blank ignorance as from the “conceit of knowledge without the reality.” The Socratic cross-examination substituted for this, as a second state, the painful consciousness of ignorance. There was a third state of affirmative and defensible belief, to which the mind might be pushed by the constant stimulus of the cross-examination; but even if this highest ground was never reached, yet at any rate, according to Socrates, the second state of the man was better than the first. The constant protest of Socrates was against the unsoundness of established customs, fashions, and beliefs; against the “omnipotence of King *Nomos*,” to borrow the expression which Herodotus quotes from Pindar, and a formidable enemy he proved himself to that great king. An outspoken dissenter in the midst of an orthodox community was not likely to be popular. However subsequent ages have canonized the memory of Socrates, his fate in more modern times would only have substituted the torture chamber, the scaffold, or the stake, for the hemlock draught; and our own days have seen on more than one occasion the old drama of Anytus, Meletus, and Socrates played out in spirit if not in the letter. This general discussion of the Socratic method and the negative dialogues is one of the most interesting portions of the book. The influence of this side of the Platonic writings is thus happily described:—“The *process* of philosophizing is not one naturally attractive, except to a few minds; the more, therefore, do we owe to the colloquy of Sokrates and the writings of Plato, who handled it so as to diffuse the

appetite for inquiry and for sifting dissentient opinions. The stimulating and suggestive influence exercised by Plato—the variety of new roads pointed out to the free inquiring mind—are in themselves sufficiently valuable, whatever we may think of the positive results in which he himself acquiesced.” These Dialogues of Search are more minutely treated than the other class; the peculiar interest attaching to them being that they form so striking a contrast to all modern methods. Modern readers do not understand, says Mr. Grote, what is meant by publishing an inquiry without any result—a story without an end.

The order which is followed in this book in the consideration of the separate dialogues begins with those which delineate Socrates, “and which confine themselves to the subjects and points of view belonging to him, known as he is upon the independent testimony of Xenophon.” The difference of the Platonic and Xenophontic portraiture of Socrates is a most interesting subject, and is frequently elucidated and illustrated in the present work. Agreeably with this idea, the analysis of the Dialogues commences with the Apology, as giving the real line of defence used by Socrates before the Dicasts; then follows the Crito, representing Socrates in a wholly different light—a loyal subject to the laws of Athens and not a rebel. This prepares us for the Euthyphron, which gives some hint of the way in which Plato would deal with the charge of impiety brought against Socrates—a defence eminently Socratic, and forming a thorough contrast to the matter-of-fact defence in the Memorabilia.

There cannot be a reasonable doubt that Mr. Grote has seized the best form into which an analysis of the Dialogues could be thrown; being in fact the counterpart of the way in which he has treated Thucydides in his History of Greece: in every case condensing or expanding the scheme of argument, accompanying the same with comment, criticism, or illustration; and partly translating entire passages when the peculiar form of argument or the characteristic circumstances of the case seemed to demand it. The line of thought is always kept clear, and the translations are always vigorous. Yet it might, we think, be possible, even within the necessary limits of such a book, to infuse something of a more decidedly Platonic spirit and tone into the sketch of each dialogue. Doubtless it would require a most delicate appreciation of the beauties of Plato, perhaps something of sympathy with the Platonic cast of thought; certainly it needs a subtle touch and a light hand to carry out such a suggestion. But it would be within the bounds of possibility even in a short analysis; it wants but the turn of a sentence, the choice of a word, the selection of the passages for translation, to hit off some few of the peculiar characteristics of Plato. A single expression would serve to remind us what part the irony of Socrates plays in the passage; would recal to our minds some Platonic paradox, some exquisite illustration, some wonderful touch of humour. The Platonic writings are so instinct with life and colour that it is almost cruel to reduce them to skeletons, useful as that form may be for the study of their anatomy. With Aristotle the same process would not be open to such objections; but in the case of Plato, where every turn of style is inseparable from the philosophy, it is worth while to make such an attempt. Mr. Grote may not be the best man in the world to perform this task; but then on the other hand, Plato himself would be the last person to make a clear and close analysis of his own compositions. We have so much here in which to “rest and be thankful,” that we may insist less on our visionary hopes about something which has not been accomplished.

To the Republic, the perfect model of Plato's genius, Mr. Grote has devoted the most elaborate portion of his third volume. All the chapters upon it deserve most attentive perusal, for there is much inconsistency and not a little confusion, that render it a hard matter to keep the general end in view for which the Republic was written. And it could hardly be otherwise. Plato felt that his model commonwealth belonged to “a kingdom not of this world;” it might be practicable when kings were philosophers, and philosophers kings; but Plato himself, towards the end of the treatise, gives up the idea of its possibility. The model commonwealth is to him a sort of framework in which to embody different principles of government and education. Mr. Grote brings out strikingly the confusion that we find between the preacher and philosopher in the Republic. Between the exhortations of the one and the social analysis of the other “there is a practical contradiction which is all the more inconvenient, because he passes backwards and forwards almost unconsciously from one character to the other.” Of the connection and contrast of the Republic and the Laws—the free inquiry and the tentative nature of the one, and the authoritative, we might say intolerant, tone of the latter—Mr. Grote must be left to speak. Many would be glad to see more detailed and more systematized accounts on many points, such as the theology and psychology of Plato; the development of the doctrine of Ideas; the general criticisms of Aristotle, and so on; but such essays would be foreign to the form in which the book is cast. To keep each dialogue separate, with scarcely an exception, is the principle upon which the book is written, and we must, if we accept it, refrain from asking for what would imply a philosophical connection between several or all. The book is brought to an appropriate close by a chapter containing brief notices of certain other philosophers connected with Socrates, of the Megaric, Cynic, and Cyrenaic schools, and a short account of Xenophon, no less closely connected with the subject of the work as biographer of Socrates in the Memorabilia.

REPORT ON CHEAP WINES.*

It seems an odd thing to say, but, if we carefully consider the matter, there can be no denying the fact that, among the many political gains which have accrued to us through the loss of the Stuart dynasty, we gained one thing we never bargained for—the gout. It is true that punch may have had something to do with introducing that disease, but it is doubtless to Protestant port that we owe its permanent establishment among us. That we should make, or at least perpetuate, a dire malady by Act of Parliament, seems startling; but that the Methuen Treaty of 1703 did this, is clear. In order to spite the French, who inconveniently petted the Jacobites, their light and wholesome wines were excluded, and the port of Portugal was encouraged to take its place. This substitution was maintained, by the aid of the excise duties, up to a few years ago. Even had not Gladstone somewhat rudely interfered with this tendency towards political port, our stomachs had been for some time rebelling against it. People were beginning to find out that they could not take port. The drug, for so we must term the bulk of the stuff which passes muster under that name, has in its operations through the last four or five generations established a diathesis which is compelling us to abandon it. Every day we see the port-decanter refused for the lighter wines of France or Germany. Possibly economy, as well as dietetic philosophy, has something to do with this change in our social habits, inasmuch as first-class port has long been at a famine price. The little volume under notice seems destined to further the change that is taking place, from its strong leaning towards the light wines that have come in under the Gladstone Treaty, and from the enmity the writer shows towards the cheap and nasty liquids now sold under the name of port and sherry. A natural taste is not altered in a moment; and it is hardly to be wondered at that the lower middle class, which is generally a dozen years or so behind the fashions of the upper ten thousand, should still cling to the old-established wines. “Fine crusted port at 2s. 9d.” is, we find, now placarded in all the gin palaces, and we saw the other day in a grocer's window the announcement that “our 30-shilling sherry is highly approved of in the neighbourhood.” It is against such gross frauds upon the public palate that Dr. Druitt vents all his indignation. He shows that this stuff is manufactured—as we would manufacture blacking—at Hambro', and that it possesses but little juice of the grape at all, but is a compound strengthened and fortified by British spirit. There seems to be an idea abroad that all wines to meet the English market must be drugged with alcohol. The very best port and sherry that Portugal and Spain send us is thus doctored; indeed, it is not allowed to leave the country without being rendered fiery. Possibly our ancestors, spoiled by the prevalent taste for punch, did demand brandied wine, and it is this acquired taste that we have now to fight against. Pure and natural wines at first strike us as cold and thin, but we have at least the satisfaction of knowing that we are drinking the juice of the grape; besides, as Dr. Druitt remarks, if we must have spirit, let us take Old Tom, or wine of potato, which may be had for 1s. 4d. a gallon, far cheaper when mixed with water than the cheapest port or sherry can be obtained. But, above all things, Dr. Druitt denounces the class of wine which he terms dispensary port—a decoction which is provided by charities for the sick poor, as a means of sustaining their failing powers. We all know what “widows' port” is like, but dispensary port is many depths below this. The poor bloodless creatures that are deluded with the notion that the stuff they carry away in their dirty bottles is a generous fluid calculated to sustain their nerves and invigorate their blood, little know that it is contaminated with “methylated spirit,” a deleterious element which “the infernal ingenuity of wholesale chemists supplies at low rates in the shape of tinctures to parsimonious dispensary committees.” Well might the Doctor exclaim, “O Charity, what crimes are committed in thy name!” It certainly does seem astonishing that such stuff should be fraudulently poured down the throats of the helpless poor, when really pure wine can be obtained quite as cheaply.

Dr. Druitt, in his examination of cheap wines, tells us that his labour has been confined to that class which comes under the term “vin ordinaire.” From 1s. 6d. to 2s. a bottle are the limits within which he works. In doing this he is wise. If the English nation are to become wine-drinkers, they must be able to obtain wine at a reasonable price; for it must be remembered that the wines of France and Germany, as a rule, are drunk with water in goblets, not sipped in teaspoonfuls, like ports and sherries. Can we obtain such wine within the means of the middle classes? Dr. Druitt says “yes.” He has constituted himself wine-taster for the public good; and we cannot doubt, after reading his report, that all the tales about cheap clarets not keeping are incorrect. We cannot help agreeing with him also in his medical opinion that there is a very large class of persons in this country too poor to drink first-class port and sherry, and too sedentary in their habits to take wholesome beer, who will derive the greatest advantage from drinking the clarets of France—far more advantage than from that endless sipping of tea which is, we believe, at the bottom of a great number of the nervous diseases of the day. Whilst he admires the clean pure taste of these wines, however, which brighten the spirits without inebriating, all his fervour is devoted to the Burgundies. Let us hear him:—

* Report on Cheap Wines from France, Italy, Austria, Greece, and Hungary. By Robert Druitt, Member of the Royal College of Physicians, &c. London: Renshaw.

"So much for Bordeaux wines, on which I love to linger. It is a model of purity and freshness; so little prone to disagree with anyone; so well adapted as a beverage for all ages and conditions. To me, it resembles young, fresh, laughing, innocent girlhood. But there is something beyond even this. We may admire the rosebud and the snowdrop, but there is a place in our affections for something fuller, warmer, rounder, and more voluptuous. As is Aphrodite to the wood-nymph, or the Olympic Jove to Apollo, or Jeremy Taylor to Bunyan, so are thy wines, O Burgundy, to those of thy sister, Bordeaux."

After this little burst, we have still more respect and belief in Dr. Druitt as a guide, for a writer who can throw such sentiment into his pen must have it also at the tip of his tongue; and what is wine unless it has a sentiment? We cannot help observing, however, that, whilst he is thus apostrophizing "the something fuller, warmer, rounder, and more voluptuous," he is speaking of Volney at 5s. a bottle; but this, he adds, is enough for four persons. There are good and cheap Burgundies to be had nevertheless; for instance, who would drink Hambro' port or sherry, when he may get Maçon, Beaujolais, and Beaune, all good, sound, appetizing wines, under 22s. a dozen?

The value of Burgundy, as a medicinal agent in cases of nervous exhaustion, is dwelt upon by Dr. Druitt with much force, and he propounds a theory respecting its *modus operandi* which is new to us, but which is certainly worthy of consideration. He thinks a great deal of its value depends upon its odour. He argues that all experience proves that animals intuitively delight and search after certain odours: every animal has its peculiar odour, not excepting man himself. Their presence is a sign of vigour, and they exist most permanently in those perfect animals which are notorious for their ferocity, boldness, and activity.

"If (he argues) these odours be the product, or accompaniment, or instrument of a vigorous nervous system, we might expect, *a priori*, as we find in fact, that they are sought for and loved by, and that they are beneficial to, persons whose nervous systems are feeble and shattered and inadequate to their work. As we prescribe the juice of the muscular flesh of animals—i. e., soup or essence of beef—to persons who are deficient in muscular force, so persons who are deficient in nervous force, as the hysterical, have sought out and prescribed for themselves, led by an unerring instinct, the odours which are part of the apparatus of the nervous system of other animals in the highest state of their perfection. . . . What Bordeaux is to the blood, Burgundy is to the nerves."

Whilst we admit there is something which looks very like truth in this theory, we must be on our guard, as Dr. Druitt very properly says, with respect to many medical qualities which quackish practitioners attribute to certain wines. Thus, for instance, a Dr. W. Kletzinsky puffs up Hungarian wine as highly valuable to all nervous persons in consequence of the amount of phosphorus it contains, which, he asserts, is the very life of the nerve. It is unnecessary to say that pure phosphorus is a deadly poison, and that it is wholly absent from Hungarian wine; but it sounds well as an advertising catch, and we have no doubt that many people take Tokay with the idea that it nourishes their nerves. That this wine, however, has a certain effect upon the animal powers is, we are told, a firm belief of the people of the district in which it is grown. Other wines are said to be valuable on account of the sulphur they contain; but we warn our readers against indulging in any wine with the idea that by so doing they are pleasantly medicating themselves. It may seem very scientific, but we would rather follow the empirical method adopted by Dr. Druitt, who tries all things, and holds fast that which is good, depending upon his instinct and the test of his own digestive organs, than upon any chemical theory built up to accommodate some foregone conclusion. It is very difficult thoroughly to appreciate an utterly new wine, or to change the tastes to which we have been educated from our youth up. But we fancy that the Greek wines (introduced exclusively, we believe, by Mr. Denman, of Piccadilly and Abchurch-lane, who has himself written a book on wine) will speedily obtain public favour. They seem to possess all the clear, bright properties of the Rhine wines, together with the body and flavour of more southern vintages. Many of the white wines appear to us a delicate mixture of hock and sherry; and we would especially instance the St. Elie, a famous "wine of night." The White Hymette, again, once tasted, will never be given up for brandied cheap sherries. Como, a red wine, is said to be very like a natural port, but, as Englishmen never taste that pure liquor, we must take it on trust. There are various kinds of Greek wine—Santorin, White and Red Keffesia, Thera, Patras—all possessing body and flavour without an atom of sophistication. These new wine-flavours come to us like a batch of new acquaintances, a little strange at first, but so genuine and prepossessing that they are sure to ripen into fast friends. Let us recommend our readers to try these delicate Greeks; they are within the means of all, ranging from 1s. 4d. to 2s. 6d. a bottle, and will certainly hit the taste of those who prefer a pure wine-flavour to potations adulterated with alcohol. Dr. Druitt speaks highly of them, and we agree with him most thoroughly.

We have learned much from this interesting little essay on Cheap Wines, and we feel sure that it will smite very hard the popular delusion respecting port and sherry, and tend to open wider the door to the bright and pleasant wines attracted to us by the Gladstone treaty. It seems to us that if we were to lower the duty on these wines in bottle—at present 2s. 6d. per gallon, or 5d. per bottle—to 6d. per gallon, or 1d. per bottle, as

recommended by Mr. W. R. Smee, we should at once thoroughly popularize them, and in the end do a benefit to the revenue, just as the lowering of the postage-rates increased the receipts at St. Martin's-le-Grand, and we should at the same time confer an enormous boon upon trade. Who can doubt that claret at 1s. a bottle, at which it could well be sold with such a reduction of the duty, would give an immense impetus to the trade of France, and, consequently, to our own?

DIAMONDS AND PRECIOUS STONES.*

JEWELS are among the most fascinating of Nature's dainty caprices. Formed in the depths of the earth, like crystallized and subterranean flowers, they seem, flower-like, to have no other use than beauty, and to have been created to show that beauty alone is reason enough for a thing existing, even when no other reason is apparent. All down the gorgeous, pageant-like history and fiction of the East, a rainbow light of jewels glimmers over the chronicles of life and death, of love and violence, of power and dominion. Princes reward their favourites with a gem worth the revenue of a kingdom; magicians bind their familiars to stones of price; genii carry jewels through the air on wondrous expeditions, and build palaces with them for royal lovers to dwell in. They furnish half the imagery of Oriental poetry, and are the visible symbols of all the virtues. Cunningly combined in a certain order, they form brave love-letters for sultanas, or tender epitaphs for their tombs. Of no less value in the West—or rather of greater value, because more rare—they have always been among the chief adornments of courts. Some of them have become historical, and can boast their records of centuries. Kings have been known to put no small part of their personal fortunes in them, for instantaneous removal in times of revolution. They have been credited with mystical and medicinal properties; they are the heir-looms of great families; they cluster in luminous galaxies about the neck and arms of beauty; and even she whom kindly flesh and blood have made fair enough to turn the heads of half the town, seems more radiant still

"When she comes in like starlight, hid with jewels
That are the spoils of provinces."

The show of gems in the Exhibitions of 1851 and 1862 were among the great attractions of the place, and the Koh-i-noor, in the former, was one of the lions of the season. Mr. Emanuel, therefore, does well to give us a book on this bright and pleasant theme.

Works on precious stones have been published ere now, and that in very large number, to judge by the bibliographical list printed at the end of the present volume; but a popular account, in English, brought down to the present day, and embracing all necessary details, was wanted, and Mr. Emanuel has filled the gap most efficiently. One of the objects of his volume is to supply practical information to intending purchasers of jewels; but the book is interesting in other respects. It presents the literary, scientific, historical, and anecdotal aspects of the subject, and is entertaining for its own sake. Some of the opinions of the ancients, quoted by Mr. Emanuel, are very singular. Plato supposed jewels to be produced by the vivifying spirit abiding in the stars, "which, longing to produce new things, converts the most vile and putrid matter into the most perfect objects." He says that diamonds were to be found lying like a kernel in gold, of which he supposed them to be the noblest part, condensed into a transparent mass. Theophrastus, a disciple of Aristotle, who has left us a treatise on precious stones, records a belief common in his days, but which he discredits, that some stones have a power of generating others. Rock-crystal was supposed to be a congelation like ice, produced only in the coldest regions; the "lapis lyncurium" was regarded as the production of a lynx; and a stone of peculiar virtue was said by Apollonius of Tyana (who tells some wonderful stories of jewels which Mr. Emanuel seems to have overlooked) to reside in the heads of dragons. To rock-crystal was attributed the power of producing the sacred fire used in the Eleusinian mysteries. Being laid on chips of wood in the sun, first smoke and then flame burst forth, and the gods were thought to have a particular partiality for this species of burnt offering. Mr. Emanuel very plausibly suggests that the "rock-crystal" thus used was simply a burning-glass. It would seem that the ancients understood by some of the terms we now employ stones of a different character from those which we designate by the same names. Mr. Emanuel says that the only stone of whose identity with the one described in the Bible we are nearly certain, is the sapphire, which is spoken of as a transparent blue stone, "like unto the vault of heaven;" but the sapphire of the Greeks and Romans must have been somewhat different, for it was streaked or freckled with gold, and was probably a "lapis lazuli." "The emerald pillars in the Temple of Hercules at Tyre, the emerald sent from Babylon as a present to a king of Egypt, four cubits in length and three in breadth, and the emerald obelisk described by Herodotus," Mr. Emanuel considers to have been green jasper; and Theophrastus mentions having seen a stone which was partly jasper and partly emerald. Gems were sometimes said to have a mystical sympathy with those who wore them, and to become bright or dull according to the state of health of the owner. "The fact that some turquoises do change their

* *Diamonds and Precious Stones: their History, Value, and Distinguishing Characteristics. With Simple Tests for their Identification.* By Harry Emanuel, F.R.G.S. London: J. C. Hotten.

colour," says our author, "may have given rise to this superstition; the real cause of their variation seems to arise from the difference in temperature and state of the weather." By the transcendental philosophers of the middle ages, the diamond was credited with the power of driving away evil spirits, and of inspiring men with courage and magnanimity. According to Boetius, the ruby is a sovereign remedy against plague and poison; the jacinth, if worn on the finger, procures sleep, and brings riches, honour, and wisdom; the amethyst dispels drunkenness, and sharpens the wit; the chrysolite cools boiling water, assuages wrath, and discovers the presence of poison by losing its brilliancy; and equally admirable qualities are possessed by other stones. Some of the fancies of the Oriental nations about jewels are very splendid. The Persians believed the colour of the heavens to be reflected from a vast sapphire on which the globe is based, and the Vedas speak of a place illuminated by rubies and diamonds, which emit light like that of a planet. It was probably from the East that the Greeks derived their regard for jewels, and the Romans afterwards followed the Greeks in a still more lavish way:—

"Lucan mentions the meeting of Cæsar and Cleopatra in a hall of tortoise-shell, studded with emeralds and topaz. Cleopatra is said to have dissolved a pearl of the value of 150,000 aureos, or golden crowns, in vinegar, in the presence of Antony, and to have drunk it off. This, however, is untrue, as it would require a very much stronger acid, and a larger quantity than any one could take with impunity, to dissolve a pearl of that magnitude. Cæsar is said to have paid a sum equal to fifty thousand pounds sterling for a single pearl. The fellow drop to the pendant destroyed by Cleopatra, was sawn in two by command of the Emperor Augustus, and used to adorn the statue of Venus. As we approach the later periods of Roman history, we find numberless instances of the appreciation in which jewels were held. In the time of the Ptolomies, they were used in profusion for ornamenting arms, drinking-cups, and even the altars of the gods. A poem by Dionysius Periegetes contains several allusions to precious stones,—the asterios, the lustre of which is like a star, the lychnis, of the colour of fire, the amethyst, with a tint like purple, are all mentioned. Caligula adorned his horse with a collar of pearls, the shoes of Heliogabalus were studded with gems, and the statues of the gods had eyes of precious stones, a custom which was clearly derived from the East; even in later days, one of the largest diamonds in the Russian treasury is known to have formed the eye of an idol of an Eastern temple, and was stolen by a European, who had become a priest of the shrine."

Next to the diamond, the ruby is the most valuable of stones. In China, the slippers of women are ornamented with this splendid gem, and in India rubies are found incrusting sword-handles and other articles. Mr. Emanuel says that "the anthrax of Theophrastus, and the Indian carbuncle spoken of by Pliny, were no doubt rubies," and the stone was alleged by both authors to give light in the dark. Ancient cameos and intaglios engraved on rubies, and dating back to about 500 years B.C. (the finest period of Greek art), are still in existence, and show that the ruby was well-known in Europe even in those days.

Mr. Emanuel's work contains many particulars with regard to the chemistry of precious stones. It is not generally known that modern science is able to produce a species of artificial ruby—that is to say, minute crystals of a red colour, of precisely the same form of crystallization as the natural ruby, and of equal hardness. These crystals, however, are never otherwise than very small, and, as small natural rubies are already common, it seems doubtful whether the artificial ones will ever be in demand. It has been shown by experiment that the ruby will bear a degree of heat which utterly consumes the diamond. Some of these experiments on diamonds are very interesting. "Lavoisier burnt a diamond in oxygen, and obtained the same result as arises from the combustion of pure carbon—carbonic acid. Another chemist, Clouet, made steel by exposing iron and diamond together, thus proving its identity with other carboniferous bodies, and showed that the diamond burns readily when in the open air, or in gas, to an intense heat, with a bright red flame, and gives out sparks during combustion."

Those who are in any way interested in jewels should read Mr. Emanuel's book. It is well done, and treats every side of the subject with intelligence and knowledge.

NOVELETTES.*

"HAMILTON GRAEME" is a story, the characters and circumstances in which belong to the nineteenth century, the morals to the time of Moses. More Jewish than the Jews, the author, apparently with a solemn ignorance of nearly all the prophets from the days of Isaiah, who distinctly announce the will of Jehovah that every man should be answerable for his own sins only, dwells with peculiar satisfaction on the idea of our being made responsible for the misdeeds of our progenitors. In accordance with this view of matters, the hero of the story, personally amiable enough, and, indeed, irreproachable, is made to expiate, by the loss of fortune and position, and a narrow escape from an ignominious death

by hanging, the sin of his great-grandfather a hundred years previously; the inevitable inference being, either that the innocent suffer in common with the guilty, which is contrary to all principles of equity, or that the original criminal not only escapes punishment, but is rewarded for his offence; which is an insult to all ideas of Divine justice. The good effect of stories intended to inculcate the accumulation of ancestral sins upon the heads of "the third and fourth generation," in face of those more merciful promises which have cut off the entail of transgressions, may, however inspired by mistaken piety, be much questioned. It is unnecessary to detail minutely the complications of the story, which is not without interest, nor devoid of minor teachings of practical value. The experiences of convict life, although this section of the work is somewhat disproportionately dwelt on, are moderately and pretty accurately represented. Poetical justice, it may be added, is finally done, constant love receives its meed, innocence is made clear, the guilty are punished, and the moral balance is duly adjusted.

In "Pictures of the Periods" Dr. Collier has given a series of sketches of social and domestic life, accessory, as they may be called, to British history, during the six chief eras through which our forefathers have passed, and in which, were it not for the steady and persevering assistance afforded to political records by antiquarian studies, we might not be able

"Readily to distinguish
Our Roman-Saxon-Danish-Norman-English."

In all these tales the author has laudably aimed to combine the illustration of national habits and usages with the interest involved in the progress of events as modified by human character and natural affection, and in most instances successfully; although why the particular periods of our insular annals here selected should be arbitrarily styled "the six periods," does not appear. The Danish period is omitted altogether, while, further on, the times of the Reformation and the Revolution, in which the religious and civil liberties of the people were established, were undoubtedly as worthy of signalizing the respective epochs at which they occurred, as the mere fact of a Tudor or Brunswick dynasty, at such and such a time, occupying the throne. The book nevertheless, on the whole, gives a tolerably satisfactory view of by-gone modes of life, the customs and habits of various classes, and their position with regard to each other; as well as many entertaining glimpses of feudal, chivalric, and religious institutions, and the recreations and fashions of the day, from the May games of old times to the feverish speculations connected with the South Sea Bubble, which will doubtless render it both useful and attractive to those who are not inclined to more laborious researches.

The directors of the Scottish Temperance League having offered prizes, £250 for the best, and £100 for the second best temperance tale, these were respectively gained—the first by the tale denominated "By the Trent," and the second by "Dunvarlich, or Round about the Bush." The object of both these stories is, of course, to impress upon the public mind the moral and physical virtues of total abstinence from all exhilarating beverage; that toasts should be drunk in cups of tea, and that people should make themselves methodically merry with foaming goblets of pump-water. The argument against excess is held by the whole Christian world in common with those inside the premises of the Glasgow League. The assumption of the word "temperance," therefore, as expressive of the peculiar principles of the society alluded to, and others kindred with it, and then confounding that virtue with total abstinence, is a notorious instance, not only of mistaken identity, but of an intemperate use of language. Apart, however, from the one-sided views upon which "Dunvarlich" is ostensibly based, the work is not altogether destitute of commendable qualities; there being visible in it, for instance, an attempt at humour, which, if not wholly successful, may, considering the tenets of the society to which the author belongs, and the provocations to which he must frequently submit, be regarded as tolerable. The various trials which the gouty baronet makes of hydropathy, homœopathy, and other modes of therapeutic treatment, while, all the time, the only cure lies in the cow with the iron tail—curative experiences which are filtered, for the benefit of the reader, through the dense ignorance of a boy in buttons, whose fondness for spouting poetry is only equalled by his neglect of the precise language employed—are related by the author in a manner occasionally suggestive of comical effects. In several of the incidents with which the heroine is connected, probability has been little consulted. In the railway catastrophe, due to the drunkenness of an engineer, the author has strikingly depicted the dreadful results of a vice which can never be too emphatically denounced, nor too extensively discouraged; a vice which, it is hoped, the popular diffusion of works such as these will tend to diminish.

It is to be hoped that the rage for adapting French dramas to the English stage will not extend itself to works of fiction. An honest translation of a clever or useful book is a legitimate proceeding; but we do not admire the process by which in the present case the hero and incidents, entirely imaginary, of a French comedy are transferred bodily to the pages of an English novel as the veritable character and adventures of a real personage, such as David Garrick. The distinguishing event of the story is not only in itself outrageous and repulsive, however suitable it may have been to the altogether imaginary Hibernian of the Parisian playwright's brain, but untrue and degrading to our conceptions—although such is obviously not the author's intention—of

* Hamilton Graeme; or, the Fourth Generation. By the Author of "Kind Words to my College Friends." London: W. Macintosh.

Pictures of the Periods, a Sketch-Book of Old English Life. By William Francis Collier, LL.D., Author of "History of English Literature," &c. Edinburgh: W. P. Nimmo.

Dunvarlich; or, Round about the Bush. By David Macrae, Author of "George Harrington," &c. London: Houlston & Wright.

David Garrick; a Love Story. By T. W. Robertson. London: S. O. Beeton.

the honourable and straightforward conduct of the descendant of the French Protestant refugee, and the friend of Burke and Johnson. For the rest, the manners and habits of London citizens of a serious cast, and those of the fashionable frequenters of theatres and other places of amusement of the time, are sketched with some degree of spirit and fidelity.

LA RAZZA NEGRA.*

THE author of this work has resided in the Southern States of America for a period of six years. He was there engaged in the capacity of private tutor to some wealthy planters' families, and few strangers have had, as he alleges, as good opportunities of obtaining exact information on the state of the negroes at the Southern plantations as he has had. He resolved therefore, probably in grateful remembrance of his pleasant life among his friends, to enlighten his countrymen, with whom the negro is still an *essere enigmatico*, on the true nature of the black race. It would seem that the science of Anthropology is not much cultivated among the Italians, and that, in their sympathy for the unfortunate black race, they are solely guided by feelings of generosity and liberalism. The author was therefore obliged, in his endeavour to show his countrymen that their sympathies were misplaced, to have recourse to the works of English, French, German, and American anthropologists and scientific travellers. The idea of any kind of slavery is so deeply abhorred by the Italians that Signor Manetta does not dare to raise his voice in favour of the "Institution" as such; he seems to admit that we should not enslave and subjugate our fellow-creatures—but the negro "is not our fellow-creature."

In order to prove this assertion, the author quotes very largely from various works on the subject, which all tend to show that the negro participates in the nature of the ape. These quotations, which are so numerous that they impart to the book the character of a mere compilation, are not unfrequently contradictory, and may sometimes be used as the best arguments against the author's point of view. Thus, Signor Manetta cites an assertion of Dr. Madden that, according to the assurance of all the missionaries in Africa, the negro children are universally considered equal to European children with regard to mental capacity, and in certain cases they are still more ready-witted, and possess a higher degree of retentive faculty. It is true that this statement is modified by Dr. Clarke, who asserts that this remarkable fact chiefly takes place from the fifth to the twelfth or thirteenth year, and that it is less observable from that period to the twentieth year. But, if we grant this, it is still quite sufficient to show that the negro is, after all, not quite so much an ape as the former tutor of the Southern slaveholders wishes to represent him. On page 47, Signor Manetta maintains that the negro race has at all times been stationary, and has never received any cultivation whatever from its long contact with civilized nations; in corroboration of which, he quotes a passage from Dr. Hunt. Nevertheless, he admits on the next page that there are still traces of a remote and higher civilization to be found in the maritime districts of Africa. This circumstance the author attributes, however, to the constant intercourse of the inhabitants of those districts with European nations. The contradiction is here too flagrant to require a further pointing out.

The unfortunate question of slavery may in some measure be considered as practically solved with the suppression of the Southern movement; but, from a scientific point of view, the negro's proper place in nature cannot yet be said to be definitely settled. There is no doubt, that, if sentimental negro-worship has on the one hand overrated the mental faculties of the black race, passionate partiality has on the other hand considerably underrated them. Even those who would assign to the negro only the lowest degree on the diversified scale of the human race have involuntarily adduced undeniable evidence to the contrary, as we have but lately seen in Captain Burton's "Wit and Wisdom from West Africa"—a circumstance which has been already pointed out in our notice of that work. The common mistake of all anti-negro writers seems to be that they condemn the whole of the black race *en bloc*, and do not make any difference between one branch of the same race and another. All the vices and defects found among the negroes of one district are indiscriminately attributed to the race; whilst, when some good features are mentioned with reference to a certain branch, great care is taken to mention that the praise concerns that particular branch only, and is not to be claimed by all the children of Ham. Another great mistake is to judge of the negroes in their state of slavery. Even the noblest human creature must become demoralized, if not depraved, by being treated like a living machine. For the same reason, it is also unfair to judge of all the negroes by the generality of the "liberated slaves." Those whose lives have once been blasted by the curse of subjection must needs lose more than half of their better nature.

Signor Manetta gives a rapid survey of all the negro settlements out of Africa, and comes to the conclusion that they are nowhere better off than among the Southern slaveholders. He gives the latter an excellent character, and mentions some touching instances of the anxious care which they take of their bipedal "cattle." We doubt if his work be capable of making proselytes among the

Italians; but he manifests such an affectionate remembrance of the late Confederate States of America, that his book is at any rate a speaking protest against the French reproach of "Italian ingratitude."

AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND, AND BRITISH COLUMBIA.*

WE have so recently described the general features of Australian discovery, that Mr. Howitt must excuse us if we skip the greater portion of his two volumes. Although he may have done little or nothing himself to extend our geographical knowledge, he possesses a sort of family claim to write on the topics contained in his book. He has been in Australia; one of his sons, Alfred, commanded an expedition sent out in quest of Burke and Wills, whose remains he found and buried; and another, Charlton, was drowned in New Zealand while trying to make his way across the country from Canterbury to the Western Coast over the Southern Alps. The history of the exploration of the New Zealand group is briefly told, and well. Small as is their extent, the interior of them is even now comparatively unknown. In the northern island the scenery is unusually varied, and full of startling extremes. An hour's walk will take you from a pastoral landscape, worthy of our Midland Counties, to places where Horace's metaphor becomes a reality:—

"Incedis per ignes
Suppositos cineri doloso."

Clouds of steam, boiling water, and sulphurous odours, burst through the crevices and gaps of the soil. Mud-ponds in continual agitation throw up jets of heated fluid ten feet high. Under your feet you hear the roar of a steam-engine at work, or the blast of a furnace; and this Tartarus above ground the natives convert into a kitchen, cooking their food by laying it on fern-leaves over the narrow openings. In another place the traveller is startled by the sight of a cascade of boiling water tumbling into a lake of azure hue over a flight of natural steps of rose-tinted marble. The scenery in the middle island is still more romantic: mountain peaks piercing the blue sky at 12,000 feet above the sea; glaciers shining like molten silver; waterfalls plunging down to a depth of 1,700 feet; and vast chains and ridges covered with eternal snow. But travelling in the unreclaimed interior is decidedly dangerous. The rivers, swollen by perpetual rains, descend with such velocity from the precipitous hills that persons are continually swept away, even at known fords; "so that drowning," writes Mr. Howitt, "has been said to be a natural death in these islands." Chapter XXIV. contains an account of several of these accidents, including that in which the author's son perished.

The transition from the land of the Maori to British Columbia is not so abrupt as it seems to be at the first glance; for ere long, according to Mr. Macfie, Vancouver Island will be a regular halting-place for travellers between England and our Austral colonies. His description of British Columbia is rather highly coloured, but hardly more than is usual in the book of a successful emigrant. We must confess that his materials are badly arranged, if, indeed, they can be said to be arranged at all; but then they contain an ample store of information on all sorts of subjects, statistical, geographical, geological, &c.—information which may be had if you dig for it.

Until 1857, Vancouver Island and the Fraser River were unknown even by name to the British public. Some schoolboy of tenacious memory might recollect having read in his Goldsmith something about a difficulty with Spain relative to Nootka Sound, and that was all, until the news of the discovery of gold directed public attention to the places. Up to that time, Victoria, the capital, was a quiet, dull port of about 250 inhabitants: its shipping was confined to a few Indian canoes and the annual trading vessel from England. In four months, 20,000 diggers and others poured into the little town; the rich went to speculate, the poor to try and become rich. The rise in the value of land was enormous; half a town-plot, bought for £5, was sold within a few weeks for £600. In due time a reaction followed, and many speculators collapsed; but Victoria now contains a population of nearly 6,000 souls, with race-course, cricket-ground, and park. The streets are lit with gas, and the houses supplied with water. The revenue of the colony is about £80,000, and the governing body is a Legislative Council, consisting half of Government officials, half of members elected by the colonists.

In Vancouver Island, spring is later, summer drier, autumn longer, and winter milder, than in England; but these advantages, to say nothing of the gold in the rivers and the fish in the bays, are lost to us, because of their inaccessibility. Mr. Macfie gives us a charming account of the overland route from St. Paul (Minnesota) *via* the Rocky Mountains; but he adds that he has "ceased to be sanguine" respecting the speedy accomplishment of this project, as well he may, considering that the road will be nearly 2,000 miles long, of which four-fifths would run for many a year through a desert. We hope he may live to travel over his road; meanwhile, we strongly recommend his book to all desirous of acquiring information about British Columbia.

* The History of Discovery in Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, from the Earliest Date to the Present Day. By William Howitt. Two vols. London: Longman & Co.

Vancouver Island and British Columbia; their History, Resources, and Prospects. By Matthew Macfie, Five Years Resident in Victoria, V.I. London: Longman & Co.

* La Razza Negra nel suo Stato Selvaggio in Africa e nella sua Duplice Condizione di Emancipata e di Schiava in America. Raccolta, &c., del Prof. F. Manetta. Torino: Tipografia del Commercio.

SHORT NOTICES.

The Business of Pleasure. By Edmund Yates. (Chapman & Hall.)—Offended, and not without reason, at the flippancy with which business men, after enjoying the pleasures provided for them at places of public amusement and in various ways common to civilized communities, rail at the producers as idle vagabonds animated by hatred of hard work and love of profligacy, Mr. Edmund Yates undertakes in these two volumes, which are reprinted from *All the Year Round*, to show that the men and women who minister to our enjoyments are really a very laborious and conscientious set. "The Business of Pleasure," he writes, "is carried on in the most methodical manner, is of enormous extent, employs countless 'hands,' and avails itself of all the counting-house, clerk, day-book, and ledger system, without which respectability cannot understand existence. . . . Those engaged in the Business of Pleasure are of various stations, of various temperaments, of various degrees of usefulness; but from all there is required as strict honesty, punctuality, and fidelity, as proper and earnest a performance of their duties, as thorough rectitude, as in any other condition in life." Mr. Yates thinks he may have been led to consider these matters by the fact of his springing "from parents who by profession were, according to a generous Act of Parliament only recently repealed, set forth as 'rogues and vagabonds,' but one of whom certainly used up his life, and killed himself at an early age, from his unceasing labour in a popular, an honest, an intellectual, but a parliamentarily-despised, calling." This feeling on the subject does much credit to the writer, and it cannot be doubted that a great deal of nonsense is talked with respect to the "idleness" of actors, singers, and players. But Mr. Yates's work hardly justifies its title or its introduction. A very large part has no reference whatever to "the Business of Pleasure," or to pleasure, properly speaking, in any way whatever. The volumes are in fact a miscellaneous collection of essays on subjects connected with London life and manners. The author is evidently a good deal about in the world, has a sharp eye for social peculiarities, knows exceedingly well how to get "behind the scenes," and is untiring in the hunting up of details such as would be likely to amuse an ordinary reader. These details he imparts in a rattling, lively manner, though not without an excess of that familiarity and smartness which is becoming so oppressive in the lighter literature of the day. Mr. Yates has some of the qualities of a pleasant and effective writer; but we wish he would sober down his style a little, and learn that it is not necessary to be perpetually taking the reader into his confidence, or poking him in the ribs.

The London Quarterly Review, for July. (H. J. Tresidder.)—This Review gives great attention to religious matters, and in the number before us we find three articles on theological subjects—viz. Mr. Perowne's version of the Psalms, the "Judgment in the Colenso Case," and "Modern Criticism on St. John's Gospel"—together with shorter notices of Dr. Pusey's "Lectures on Daniel the Prophet," and other works of the same class. Contenting ourselves with simply referring to those articles—the topics involved in which are too weighty to be dismissed in a few words—we will pass on to the more general papers of the number. "La Fontaine and his Fables" is a very excellent account of the witty old Frenchman and his collection of quaint stories. The essay contains a lively picture of the age in which La Fontaine lived and the society by which he was surrounded, and it compares some of his Fables with those of a similar kind to be met with in *Æsop*, the *Hitopadesa*, and other ancient collections. A very interesting article follows, on the geography, geology, antiquities, and legends of Dartmoor, from which the reader may derive a tolerably complete idea of the attractions of that wonderful region, with its splendid natural scenery, its cromlechs, its tors, its logan-stones, its ruined primeval city (of which the records have vanished, though some of the buildings yet remain), its ghostly stories and elfin superstitions. A good companion paper to this is the one entitled "Brittany: her Ballads and Legends," which is full of curious old Celtic lore. The Emperor's "Life of Cæsar," reviewed in another article, gets no better treatment than it has found in most English periodicals. The critic does not deny that it is a very able performance, but he says it has no genius, no real originality, and no fascination for the reader—"no imagination, no moral earnestness, no truly human sympathy." The interest of the work lies in the fact that it reflects the mind of its author, and reveals his principles of government. Those principles of government the reviewer condemns as unsound, considered as a permanent arrangement, though he admits that Napoleonic Imperialism may be "a sort of primary French school for the backward French nation," which is not yet fitted either for a limited monarchy or a republic, owing to the want of a true middle class and a perfectly graduated nobility, which, however, as a consequence of the material prosperity fostered by the Empire, now give some signs of appearing. "Imperialism must either be modified or pass away." Such is the upshot of the article, which, moreover, undertakes to show that the assumed parallelism between Cæsarism and Napoleonism is purely superficial. "The Codification of the Law" forms the subject of a short essay, and several recent publications on Italy afford the text for a general review of the events of late years, in which the Italians are congratulated on the great results they have already achieved, and on the brilliant future which apparently lies before them.

Hints on Hats. Adapted to the Heads of the People. By Henry Melton, Hatter to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. (J. C. Hotten.)—It appears to be a growing fashion for tradesmen to turn authors, and to publish little books on the history, and even the literature, of the commodities which they sell. These productions are sometimes cleverly done, and show how much there is to be said for "the shop" by those who know how to say it. Mr. Melton has looked up all that is worth recording about hats, and has produced an elaborate vindication of the existing "chimney-pot," as the triumph of human wit in the matter of head-gear. His reminiscences and pictorial illustrations are very entertaining; but not the

least amusing part of his book is the complacent tone in which he refers to his art, his patrons, and his experiences. Princes and lords seem to be his very good friends. "'You can always tell an Englishman by his hat,' was the remark made to me by a distinguished young Prince of the present day;" that is the easy, familiar way in which Mr. Melton talks about such matters. Conversations with Count d'Orsay and other great men in the world of fashion are also reported. The late Prince Consort consulted Mr. Melton as to hats of all sorts, military and civilian; Louis Philippe gave him an order in a remarkably affable and complimentary manner; and if any one cares to know what various styles of head-covering have been in vogue during the last thirty or forty years, to say nothing of the more ancient aspects of the hat, he may here find a record of Mr. Melton's labours, achievements, and great reforms in this branch of art. Sir Edwin Landseer introduced one of Mr. Melton's hats into his celebrated picture of Prince Albert's deer-hound; "and," says Mr. Melton, "I have often thought that it was in the power of Sir Edwin, without prejudice to his art, to have done me a good turn. From little matters great things often result. In his beautiful picture of 'Eos,' the favourite deer-hound of the Prince, Sir Edwin has painted the hat; why not also have immortalized the hatter? . . . Sir Edwin sent to me for a hat of the Prince Consort's, the style of which he introduced into the picture, placing it as lying easily on its side on a cushion, and showing nearly as much as half of the inside of the lining. Had the hat but luckily been placed just an inch more horizontally, the crown would have displayed my name as 'Hatter to his Royal Highness,' and thus rendered me an incalculable service, without prejudicing the picture in the least degree. But Fate, or the artist's fancy, decreed otherwise." There is something very modest in this alternative; but we incline to think it must have been Fate—and how much has Fate to answer for! However, there is balm in Gilead; for "rarely do many hours elapse after any distinguished arrival [at Windsor Castle] before my services are in requisition." Why everybody who goes to Windsor Castle should, immediately on arriving there, want a new hat in hot haste, we don't know; but Mr. Melton does. "Nor has the trumpet of Fame been silent on my behalf," as witness the *Morning Post*. Let not anyone suppose, however, that in publishing this little book Mr. Melton is "actuated by motives chiefly associated with his own interest." Not at all. His chief object has been "to offer a humble tribute of gratitude and respect to his late illustrious patron, his Royal Highness the Prince Consort." This object he trusts he has accomplished "in such a manner as would, under the circumstances [we do not clearly see what circumstances], have received his Royal Highness's approval." The Albert Memorial has obviously a dangerous rival.

Sailors' Homes: their Origin and Progress. Compiled from the Official Records of the Sailors' Home Society. (Cawthorn & Hutt.)—To Admiral Hall is due, in the chief degree, the credit of establishing in various parts of Great Britain and Ireland, and also in our possessions abroad, well-ordered and comfortable Homes for our Sailors, to which our seamen can resort when ashore, and be saved from the crimps and sharks who lie in wait for them. Any one who has the least acquaintance with the horrible dens at the east end of London, at Liverpool, Bristol, and other great mercantile towns, into which sailors are lured when they come home from a voyage flush of money, and where, after being made acquainted with every species of iniquity, they are often left without a penny, and subjected to violence and outrage, will understand the great necessity that exists for providing seafaring men with decent places for residence when they are on shore. This has been to some extent done, owing to the labours of Admiral Hall; but much yet remains to be accomplished. It appears that there are at least 300,000 British seamen employed in the Royal Navy and the mercantile marine, and of these a large proportion must be constantly in our sea-port towns, between voyage and voyage. Admiral Hall, some years ago, when occupying the rank of captain, took up the question of Sailors' Homes with so much vigour that he has by this time succeeded in establishing several. "To whatever station his ship was ordered," says the pamphlet before us, "there did he immediately set to work to form a Home." The exact nature of these Homes we find thus described:—"In Sailors' Homes a certain number of seamen can be lodged and fed at a reasonable expense, medical attendance, and every comfort that can be desired, being provided for them. Nor are these advantages enjoyable by British sailors alone. Seamen of all nations, when paid off from their ships, passing from one port to another, on shore, on leave, discharged from hospitals, waiting for a ship, or in any way in need of board and lodging, are received and entertained at as moderate a charge as possible. Their friends have an address to which they can safely send letters, or where they can meet them when fitting out or on their return from sea, whilst, as regards the men themselves, finding religious and useful instruction within their reach without any additional cost, they have inculcated on them the performance of their duty towards God and man." The pamphlet under notice contains a very interesting account of the movement, and of the Homes already established, and the writer advocates the setting aside by the Government of a yearly grant in aid of these excellent institutions.

Intervals of Rest and Refreshment during the Heat and Burden of the Day. By a Laborer in the Vineyard. (Hatchard & Co.)—To this little volume of religious poetry the Bishop of Ripon has supplied a short preface, from which it would seem that the writer is a female district visitor in some of the poor parts of London. The Bishop informs us, in a rather clumsy sentence, that the poems "are not committed to the press because of being imagined to possess any merit as compositions in poetry. Their value, if any, consists merely in the sacred truths which they express; truths which must ever be dear to the heart of the Christian, however plain the language in which they are set forth." But, since these truths are already to be found much better set forth elsewhere, we do not see why a confessedly poor version should be presented to the public. If there are readers who like diluted truths, well and good; but the taste can hardly be in-

dulged without the mind becoming diluted too. To many, however, the volume will be recommended by the fact that any profits arising from its sale will be devoted to the Irish Church Missions.

Penitentiaries and Reformatories. (Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.)—Under this title we have No. VI. of "Odds and Ends," and a very good addition to the collection it is. The writer seems to have considerable personal knowledge of female Penitentiaries, and to have discovered in them many faults of discipline and management which seriously impair their usefulness. It is alleged that they are all conducted on too rigorous a system, and that even in the most lax the discipline is so severe as to amount to a species of moral torture. How, we are asked, can it be expected that girls who have been accustomed all their lives to excitement, pleasure, and gratification, can be otherwise than daunted, disgusted, and angered at the multitude of religious services, of which they understand but little, the hard labour and long hours, the constant scolding by the superintendents, the solemn classes for instruction, the frequent silence, and the absence of recreation? The writer affirms that cases have been known of girls running away from reformatories, owing to their utter inability to bear the depression of such a life; and others have been heard to say they would rather go to gaol than to these benevolent institutions. It is well that such facts should be stated, as the tendency of writers on the subject has generally been in the direction of indiscriminate praise; and we quite agree with the writer in thinking that a milder rule, combined with religious, moral, and intellectual instruction fitted for the recipients, would be much more likely to succeed.

An Essay on the History of the English Government and Constitution, from the Reign of Henry VIII. to the Present Time. By John, Earl Russell. New Edition. (Longmans.)—A very opportune moment has been chosen by Earl Russell for the reissue of his standard work on the British Constitution. His lordship has here amalgamated the recent with the earlier work, and, instead of giving the retrospect from 1820 to 1864 in the shape of an Introduction, he has placed it at the end as a concluding chapter. Some additions and many omissions have also been made (among the former some important remarks in favour of admitting the working classes to the franchise), and the volume is handsomely printed, uniform with the later library edition of Macaulay's "History of England."

We have also received *Table of the Reciprocals of Numbers*, from 1 to 100,000, with their Differences, by which the Reciprocals of Numbers may be obtained up to 10,000,000, by Lieut.-Col. W. H. Oakes, A.J.A. (C. & E. Layton);—Part II. of *Rhymed Reason by a Radical* (Murby);—*The Cross of Light*, by Lady Thomas (Hatchard & Co.), a little religious story, told in an allegorical manner, after the fashion of the "Pilgrim's Progress";—*Little Archie's Catechism*, by Emily G. Nesbitt (Hatchard and Co.)—also a religious story, intended for the young;—and *Step to Reading* (Hatchard & Co.), designed for Sunday Schools and Adult Night Schools, and made up of Scriptural texts.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

THE account given in the columns of some of our contemporaries of the fire in the bookbinding department of the British Museum, is only remarkable for its incorrectness. The fire, it is now known, originated in one of the charcoal-pans employed by the workmen. At a quarter past eight, the gentleman in charge examined the building, and nothing unusual was noticed. At nine o'clock the place was in flames, but the fireman distinctly states that the mischief might have been stopped in five minutes if a proper supply of water and an uncoiled hose had been at hand when he first discovered the calamity. Mr. Panizzi was out at a dinner-party at the time, and only reached home between one and two in the morning. Great confusion seems to have prevailed, and the policemen on duty (who are also trained as firemen in case of accident) were singularly unfortunate in their services. The place in which the fire occurred was formerly one of the outhouses, or offices, of the Duke of Bedford. The walls in many places are nearly three feet thick, and the wood-fittings were massive, and from their age calculated to burn quickly. It is understood that about £150 was the extent of damage done to the Museum books and manuscripts, but the destruction of workmen's tools and material will necessitate an outlay of at least £1,000 to replace them. In future, some alteration, it is understood, will take place in the binding arrangements at the British Museum.

A statement is in circulation that the Right Hon. Robert Lowe, late Vice-President of the Council on Education, will be appointed to the office of Principal Librarian of the British Museum and Secretary to the Trustees, which Mr. Panizzi will shortly resign.

By the latest accounts, Professor Agassiz, of the United States, with the scientific gentlemen accompanying him, had arrived at Rio de Janeiro, and were most kindly received. The Emperor sent a boat alongside of the steamer to take the party on shore, and in the evening had a long interview with Mr. Agassiz. The Secretary of the Treasury of Brazil gave orders to have the baggage and instruments of the party passed unopened at the Custom House, and every courtesy was extended to the members of the expedition by the officials of the Brazilian Government.

Not long since, the engineering establishment which constructed the first steam printing-press used at the *Times*' office, Messrs. König & Bauer, of Würzburg, celebrated the fiftieth anniversary. In 1815 the firm produced this machine for rapid printing, which was instantly bought by the proprietors of the *Times*. The second was purchased by the famous *Allgemeine Zeitung* for duty at Augsburg, and since then it appears that 1,001 machines have been turned out by the establishment. On the day of the anniversary, a new machine was made to perform a feat in typography never before attempted—simultaneous printing in red and black. Of course, so great an achievement was not to be accomplished without some sign of praise from the local dignitary. The King of Bavaria, we are told, at once sent the firm a congratulatory letter and the grand cordon of his order.

We gather from Continental contemporaries that M. Arsène Houssaye has published a card, in which he confesses he is writing his Memoirs, but denies that they are for immediate publication. They will not see the light until ten years after his death. The Duke de Morny is said to have left Memoirs, also with injunctions not to publish them for ten years. Talleyrand's Memoirs (which he ordered to be published thirty years after his death) will probably appear this year.

A disturbance has occurred in Paternoster-row which originated in this wise:—A short time since, Messrs. Griffin & Co. purchased at an open book-auction—catalogues of which are duly sent to all the book-sellers—some rejected copies of "The New Forest, by John R. Wise," published by Messrs. Smith, Elder, & Co. These copies the purchasers inserted in their trade-list of "remainders"—reduced or uncared-for books—at a considerable reduction of the original published price, and the proprietors of the copyright, holding a stock of the work, now complain that the Messrs. Griffin, although they had an undoubted right to buy at a low price, had no right to sell at a reduced one. The Messrs. Griffin, like many other book-trading firms, are known as "remainder" dealers, and, however unpleasant it may be to the original publishers to see copies of a work advertised at a considerable reduction from the regular or first price, the right of so purchasing and so selling seems as fair and allowable as any of the other practices in free trade. The market in which the odd copies of the book were sold was as open to the complainants as to the purchaser, and a few bids from the former would certainly have prevented—or have limited the effects of—the sale to the latter. The warmth expressed amongst the conservatives of the trade in this matter, and the support given to their views by the *Publishers' Circular*, are, we fear, only proofs of that latent affection for Protective restrictions which most trades and professions declare when age or position renders them nervous of the slightest interference from an outsider.

A reprint, in remarkable facsimile of the rare original in the Grenville Library, of Caxton's "Statutes of Henry VII.," 1489, is announced as in preparation. This is the earliest known volume of printed statutes, and is further remarkable as being in English. It contains some very curious and primitive legislation on trade and domestic matters. Amongst others, we have enactments on "Correcting Priests," "Against Hunters," "Butchers," "Act for Peopling the Isle of Wight," "Prices of Hats and Caps," "The Marrying a Woman against her Will," &c. The work will be a small folio, and we believe the paper has been made expressly in exact imitation of that used by Caxton.

Mr. William Allingham, the author and editor of some volumes of poems, writes to the morning papers to recommend the naming of the new bridge at Blackfriars, "Shakespeare's Bridge." Mr. Allingham urges that in that neighbourhood were situated the poet's two theatres, the Globe and the Blackfriars, one on each bank of the Thames; and that "to some of the best judgments in England the suggestion seems a good one." The same suggestion was made by Mr. Allingham in the days of the Tercentenary last year, at which time we noticed it in these columns.

A very beautiful edition of Alfred de Musset's admired writings is now being prepared by M. CHARPENTIER, one of the most discriminating and tasteful of Paris publishers.

The whole of the books in the celebrated Offor library on sale at Messrs. SOTHERBY, WILKINSON, & HODGE'S, at the time of the late fire, have been sold to Mr. Stevens, the American agent, for a comparatively insignificant sum. Most of the treasures are completely destroyed, but by washing and mending it is believed that many of those partially injured may be in a degree restored. The fear of many booksellers and collectors, who have been in the habit of dealing with the firm, that no allowance will be made them for their property destroyed, and that uncleaned purchases will have to be paid for, notwithstanding the usual "delivery of goods"—so important as a proof of sale—has induced the other large book-auction rooms to advertise their complete responsibility for all deposits, and the fact that a floating policy has, at their houses, always protected the property of sellers. One result of the recent fire has been the increasing of insurances amongst half the old-book dealers in the metropolis.

A more commendable tone is being adopted by many of the New York papers when speaking of the South and the recent struggle there. The illustrated papers, which have an immense sale, are adorned with pictures that will assist this friendly feeling. *Harper's Weekly* has an allegorical picture of peace. *Yankee Notions* has a "Grand Carnival Jubilee of the North and South over the Restoration of the Union," a large picture representing Confederates, Federals, and negroes, in all sorts of droll costumes, playing a hundred antics. Another print represents "North and South drinking the celebrated Union Punch, got up to drown all Political and Social Differences." There is not much humour or talent in any of these illustrations, but they serve to indicate the popular feeling and the desire of the North to forget all old sores.

A correspondent, speaking of Alexandre Dumas' lectures in France and Belgium, says that, although the placards announce discourses on Cæsar and Napoleon, the lectures are in reality devoted to "Cæsar, Jules Gerard, lion-shooting, swimming, the Kalmucks, and personal adventures. The lecturer has an enormous manuscript with him, from which he never once looks up the whole time of the lecture, so frightened is he by that hydra, the public." Very recently, his son sold the whole of his cabinet of pictures and curiosities. Among the former were some of Eugene Delacroix's best works; "Tasso in the Madhouse," an admirable work by Troyon, "Goats Browsing Roses," three Decamps; and the twenty water-colour drawings which Savarni drew to illustrate "La Dame aux Camélias." The sale is the subject of general talk amongst Dumas' acquaintances, especially as many of the articles were gifts from old friends, and the erratic author was not in any great stress for money.

The beautiful New Testament recently issued in two volumes by Mr. MURRAY will be republished in New York by the Messrs. APPLETON & Co., with all the illustrations and views from photographs given in the original.

Among modern curiosities of literature may be mentioned a small volume of poems, very tastefully printed, with this title:—"Waiting at Table," Poems and Songs, by Robert Awde, a Servant. The dedication runs thus:—"To Robert Ryrie, Esq., My Good Master, this volume of Verses, composed in half-hours snatched from sleep, and in spare moments during 'Waiting at Table,' is inscribed by his obedient Servant, R. A." Many of the songs are in the Durham dialect, and the verses are quite as good as many issued under more pretentious circumstances.

We learn from New York, that Mr. Walter Low, son of Mr. Low, of the firm of Sampson Low & Co., Ludgate Hill, has disposed of his "book-store," 822, Broadway, to the well-known firm of Ticknor & Field, of Boston, who propose to continue the concern as a retail department of their own business. Mr. Low, it is understood, returns to London, to take a position in the house of his father.

Mr. MURRAY'S quarterly list of announcements of new books and new editions is, as usual, very long. As remarked on a former occasion, however, many of these book-titles have been before the public so long, and the works to which they relate have so repeatedly been announced as forthcoming, that the catalogue—as a list of publishing intentions—lacks that freshness which it is usual to expect with such papers of announcements. The following is a selection from the list:—"The Correspondence of his Majesty King George III. with Lord North during the American War, 1769-82," edited, with notes and introduction, by W. Bodham Donne, printed with Royal permission from her Majesty's library at Windsor; "Dr. and Charles Livingstone's Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries;" "Notes of the Battle of Waterloo," by the late Lieut.-Gen. Shaw Kennedy, C.B.; "Dr. William Smith's Concise Dictionary of the Bible," abridged from the larger Dictionary, 1 vol., 1,008 pp.; "Lives of Boulton and Watt, comprising a History of the Invention and Introduction of the Steam-engine," by Samuel Smiles, with numerous illustrations; the Wellington Despatches, Vol. XII., July, 1817, to end of 1818; a new series of the Wellington Correspondence, from January, 1819, to the termination of the Wellington Administration in October, 1830; "Initia Græca: an Introduction to Greek, containing a Grammar, Delectus, Exercise-book, and Vocabularies," by Dr. William Smith, 12mo. (the author states that this work has been undertaken in consequence of the repeated request of many teachers for a First Greek Course on the same plan as Dr. Smith's "Principia Latina"); "Chinese Miscellanies: a Collection of Essays and Papers," by Sir John F. Davis, Bart., K.C.B., F.R.S., author of "Sketches in China," post 8vo.; a new series to be called "Choice Travels," and including, as the first contribution, "Visits to the Monasteries of the Levant," by the Hon. Robert Curzon, with illustrations; "Domesticated Animals and Cultivated Plants, or the Principles of Variation, Inheritance, Reversion, Crossing, Interbreeding, and Selection under Domestication," by Charles Darwin, F.R.S., with illustrations, uniform with Darwin's "Origin of Species."

Mr. BENTLEY will publish at the end of the month a new novel by the celebrated Swedish novelist, Emilie Carlen, entitled "The Guardian," translated by Mrs. Bushby, in 3 vols.; and he has just ready, "Astronomical Geology," by R. G. M. Browne.

Messrs. MACMILLAN & Co. will issue immediately, "Sketches from Cambridge," by a Don, reprinted from the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and consisting of—1. Introductory; 2. The Rowing Man; 3. Athletic Sports; 4. Mathematics; 5. Reading Men; 6. The Union; 7. Various; 8. Dons; 9. Tuition; 10. College Tutors; 11. Heads of Houses; 12. Conclusion. It is to be hoped there will be a better public demand for this than there has been for Mr. Trollope's papers reprinted from the same evening journal.

Mr. JOHN MAXWELL will publish immediately a new novel by M. A. Bird, in 3 vols., entitled "The Fate of Thorsghyll."

"The Pemberton Family," edited by the author of "Margaret and her Bridesmaids," &c., will be published this week, in 3 vols., by Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Æschylus, Agamemnon, Ctesiphon, and Eumenides. Translated by A. Swanwick. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
- Ainsworth (W. H.), The Spanish Match. 3 vols. Cr. 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.
- American Joe Miller (The). 2nd edit. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
- Bidwell (C. T.), The Isthmus of Panama. 8vo., 10s.
- Brook (Mrs. C.), Almost Persuaded. New edit. 18mo., 1s. 6d.
- Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress. Illustrated by Dalziel. Square 8vo., 7s. 6d.
- Clarkson (D. A.), Designs for Tombs, Monuments, &c. Vol. III. Imp. 4to., £2. 2s.
- Cobden (R.), a Biography, by J. McGilchrist. Fcap., 5s.
- Cowper's Task. Book I., with Notes by W. McLeod. 12mo., 1s. 6d.
- Colenso (Bp.), Pentateuch and Book of Joshua Examined. Part V., with Appendix. 8vo., 18s.
- Doctor's Wife (The), by Miss Braddon. 6th edit. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
- Elliott (Rev. E. B.), Nine Confirmation Lectures. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
- Ellison (Rev. J.), Sermons for Children. New edit. 18mo., 1s.
- Emanuel (H.), Diamonds and Precious Stones. Cr. 8vo., 12s. 6d.
- Fox (W. J.), Works. Vols. I. and II. Cr. 8vo., 5s. each.
- Gastaldi (B.), Lake Habitations of Northern and Central Italy. 8vo., 7s. 6d.
- Glimpses of Heaven. 32mo., 1s. 6d.
- Handbook of Devon and Cornwall. 6th edit. Cr. 8vo., 10s.
- Russia. New edit. Cr. 8vo., 12s.
- Harrison (W.), Tongue of Time. 7th edit. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
- Hemans (Mrs. F.), Poetical Works. New edit. Fcap., 6s.
- Indian Army and Civil Service List, July, 1865. Fcap., 6s.
- Leon de Beaumanoir; or, the Twin-Born. Fcap., 6s.
- Linton (H.), Jesus and the Resurrection: Sermons. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
- Mashedier (R.), Dissent and Democracy. New edit. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.
- Miller (E.), Elementary Greek Syntax. Cr. 8vo., 4s.
- Molyneux Family (The), by Julia Addison. 2nd edit. 18mo., 2s. 6d.
- Pollard (W.), Ackworth Reading Book. Cr. 8vo., 4s. 6d.
- Portraits of Men of Eminence. Vol. III. Cr. 8vo., 21s.
- Richmond (Leigh), Annals of the Poor. New edit. Fcap., 3s.
- Ridgeway (Rev. J.), The Gospel in Type. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
- Russell (Earl), History of the English Government. Cheap edit. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
- School Reader (The). Edited by J. Tilleard. Fcap., 1s.
- Sketches from Cambridge, by a Don. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.
- Strickland (W.), Catholic Missions in South India. Cr. 8vo., 5s.
- Temple Anecdotes (The). Vol. II. Fcap., 6s.
- Thorne (E. H.), Single and Double Chants. New edit. Oblong, 1s.
- Turnock (Rev. J. R.), Sermons. Fcap., 5s.
- Watchman (The), by Marion Harland. New edit. Fcap., 2s.

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RETURNING ON WEDNESDAY, 2ND AUGUST.

For times of returning, &c., see small bills, which may be obtained at the Midland Booking Office, King's Cross Station, or at any of the Company's receiving offices.

Tickets may be obtained on the two days previous to the running of the Train, at the Midland Booking Office, King's Cross Station, at the Castle and Falcon, Nos. 4 and 6, Falcon-square; at 272, Regent-circus, Oxford-street, at Cook's Tourist office, 93, Fleet street, and on the day of the running of the Train at King's Cross Station only. An early application for them is particularly requested.

EXCURSION TRAINS will also run to London (King's Cross Station), from the above Stations, at the same fares, on Monday, July 31st, returning on Thursday, August 3rd.

Derby, July, 1865.

JAMES ALLPORT,
General Manager.

THE LONDON AND COUNTY BANK AND ALL ITS BRANCHES, AND
MESSRS. PRESCOTT, GROTE, CAVE, & CAVE, ARE AUTHORISED
TO RECEIVE APPLICATIONS FOR SHARES IN THE
**ACCIDENTAL AND MARINE INSURANCE
CORPORATION (Limited).**

To be incorporated under "The Companies Act, 1862," by which the Liability
of each Shareholder is limited to the amount of his Shares.

Capital, £2,000,000, in 80,000 Shares of £25 each.

First Issue, 40,000 Shares.

£1 per Share to be paid on Application, and £4 on Allotment.

No further call is contemplated.

DIRECTORS.

Alfred Smee, Esq., F.R.S., Chairman of the Accidental Death Insurance
Company.

J. G. B. Lawrell, Esq., } Directors of the Accidental Death Insurance
E. S. Kennedy, Esq., } Company.
Edward Solly, Esq., F.R.S. }

William Tabor, Esq., Chairman of the Gresham Life Assurance Society, and
Director of the Imperial Bank (Limited).

George Lowe, Esq., C.E., F.R.S., } Directors of the Gresham Life Assurance
George Tyler, Esq., } Society.

John Savill, Esq.

Frederick Doulton, Esq., M.P., Metropolitan Board of Works.

George Smith, Esq. (Messrs. George Smith & Co.), 86, Tower-street.

J. G. Tollemache Sinclair, Esq., The Mount, Upper Norwood, and Thurso
Castle, N.B.

BANKERS.

London and County Bank, and all its branches.

Messrs. Prescott, Grote, Cave & Cave, Threadneedle-street.

SOLICITORS.—Messrs. Chappell & Shoard, 26, Golden-square.

BROKERS.—Messrs. Mullens, Marshall, & Co., 3, Lombard-street.

SECRETARY.—John White Oram.

HEAD OFFICE.—7, Bank-buildings.

MARINE DEPARTMENT.—21, Threadneedle-street.

PROSPECTUS.

This Company has been formed to take over the business of the Accidental
Death Insurance Company—the existing constitution and capital of which are now
found to be inconvenient, and inadequate to its recently largely extended operations.

That Company, empowered by special Acts of Parliament, 15 Vic., c. 56, and 22
& 23 Vic., c. 23, was founded in 1849 with a nominal capital of £250,000 in 50,000
shares of £5 each, of which 20,000 have been issued. The following statement,
embracing the amount of premiums since the commencement of the Company,
shows the progressive and steadily increasing nature of its operations:

THE ACCIDENTAL BRANCH.

1850	...	£1,228	1	6	1855	...	£18,059	10	8	1860	...	£42,280	6	1
1851	...	2,668	15	7	1856	...	21,762	3	2	1861	...	42,283	12	5
1852	...	6,326	2	5	1857	...	25,530	3	10	1862	...	44,544	15	9
1853	...	10,752	3	9	1858	...	33,260	0	0	1863	...	47,255	19	3
1854	...	15,103	13	9	1859	...	41,754	3	6					

The income of this branch for last year was £40,489 19s. 10d.

The claims in respect of the above Premiums have not exceeded 60 per cent.

The business of the Company has been to provide any amount at death from acci-
dental causes, from £50 to £2,000, or any amount of weekly provision during complete
disability, from 10s. to £20 per week, or to provide a sum at death and weekly com-
pensation together, at arranged rates of premium. The advantages to the community
of this system of insurance must be apparent, and the figures above manifest the
manner in which they have been appreciated by the public. The Capital of the
Accidental Death Insurance Company has hitherto compelled the Directors to
limit the sums insured, thus confining the advantages of insuring to a certain
class. With the larger capital and influence of the proposed corporation insur-
ances may be granted to an extent which it is believed will attract large numbers
of the higher and more wealthy classes.

The Accidental Death Company commenced underwriting in 1862, but the
successful development of operations in Marine Insurance has been retarded by
the inappropriateness of the name for a marine company. With, however, a change
of title and constitution, and an adequacy of capital, the Company will without
doubt obtain that support to which it is fairly entitled.

The accounts of the recently formed Marine Insurance Companies, which have
exhibited good dividends, and shown prospects of great value, leave no doubt on
the minds of the Directors that at any rate equal success will attend the efforts of
the Corporation in this direction. The services of a gentleman of experience have
been secured as underwriter.

The extensive machinery of agents (of which there are between 4,000 and 5,000)
is in full work, and is of great value—indeed the directors confidently believe that
all that is required to secure a rapid increase in the existing business is a proper
adaptation of modern requirements as regards capital and position.

A provisional agreement has been made with the Directors of the Accidental
Death Insurance Company, whereby the business will be handed over to the Cor-
poration as from the 1st July last, with the offices, staff, and agents. For every
two shares of £5 with £1 paid held by the Proprietors of the Accidental Death
Insurance Company, there will be given a certificate of one Share of the "Acci-
dental and Marine Insurance Corporation (Limited)," with £5 paid. This will
absorb 10,000 Shares; the remaining 30,000 are offered to the public.

A copy of the articles of association may be seen at the office, No. 7, Bank-
buildings, and at the offices of the Solicitors and Brokers of the Company.

Applications for shares, accompanied by a remittance for the deposit, may be
made to the Bankers, Brokers, and to the Secretary at the Chief Offices, on the
accompanying form.

**ACCIDENTAL AND MARINE INSURANCE CORPORATION
(LIMITED).**

FORM OF APPLICATION FOR SHARES,

To be retained by the Bankers.

To the Directors of the Accidental and Marine Insurance Corporation (Limited),
7, Bank-buildings, E.C.

Gentlemen,—Having paid to your bankers the sum of £ , being a
deposit of £1 per share on shares in the above Company, I hereby request that
you will allot me that number, and I agree to accept such shares, or any less
number you may allot to me, and I agree to pay the sum of £4 per share on
allotment, and I authorise you to insert my name on the register of members for
the number of shares allotted to me.

Name in full
Address
Profession
Date
Signature

**THE IMPERIAL MERCANTILE CREDIT ASSOCIATION
(LIMITED).**

Capital Subscribed, £5,000,000. Paid up, £500,000.

DIRECTORS.

JOHN CHAPMAN, Esq., Chairman.
Xenophon Balli, Esq. Captain J. Gilbert Johnston.
E. J. Coleman, Esq. G. G. Macpherson, Esq.
Mr. Alderman Dakin. W. Scholesfield, Esq., M.P.
James Dickson, Esq. Sir S. D. Scott, Bart.
P. D. Hadow, Esq. H. D. Seymour, Esq., M.P.
J. O. Hanson, Esq. Joseph Thornton, Esq.
G. F. Holroyd, Esq. Alfred Wilson, Esq.
J. G. Homère, Esq. M. Zariff, Esq.

MANAGERS.—Henry J. Barker, Esq.; and T. Fraser Sandeman, Esq.
SOLICITORS.—Messrs. Ashurst, Morris, & Co.; and Messrs. Edwards & Co.

SECOND REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS

Submitted to the ORDINARY GENERAL MEETING of the PROPRIETORS, at the London
Tavern, on Thursday, the 13th July, 1865, P. D. HADOW, Esq., in the Chair.

The Directors have the satisfaction of submitting the annexed statement of
accounts, made up to the conclusion of the past half-year, from which it will be
seen that, after discharging all expenses of the establishment, and providing for
rebate of interest on loans and bills not yet matured, writing off all losses, and
making ample provision for every contingency, there remains for disposal the sum
of £103,975 1s. 8d.

This amount the Directors recommend to be appropriated as follows:—

To dividend of 10s. per share, or 20 per cent. per annum, free	£50,000	0	0
of income-tax	833	6	8
To income-tax	53,141	15	0
To balance of profits unappropriated	£103,975	1	8

The operations of the amalgamated Company have now extended over a period
of 13 months. The amount of profits distributed in January last, added to that
now exhibited, shows a total of £153,975 1s. 8d. The Directors consider they are
justified in congratulating the Proprietors upon a result which, bearing in mind
the difficulties which almost invariably attend new undertakings, and the exception-
ally unfavourable condition of all monetary affairs during a considerable portion of
the time, cannot be regarded as otherwise than satisfactory for the past and encou-
raging for the future.

July 8, 1865.

By order, W. C. WINTERBOTTOM, Secretary.

**Balance Sheet of the Imperial Mercantile Credit Association
(Limited), 30th day of June, 1865.**

Dr.	CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES.			
To capital :—100,000 shares of £50 each, £5 per share paid up	...	£500,000	0	0
To liabilities :—Cash held upon deposit	...	2,129,325	8	3
Credit balances	...	209,747	7	4
			<hr/>	
			2,339,072	15 7
Bills payable	...	394,537	16	10
Bankers' credits	...	550,060	0	0
Indorsements and guarantees	...	946,708	6	9
Sundry accounts for commissions and charges	...			
unpaid	...	19,574	13	8
			<hr/>	
			1,910,820	17 3
To rebate on bills not due	...		15,404	10 10
To profit and loss :—Balance, being net profit carried down	...		103,975	1 8
			£4,869,273	5 4

ASSETS.				Cr.
By cash at bankers, in hand, and at call	£227,156 13 5
By bills receivable	1,444,996 11 11
By loans, securities, and current accounts	2,605,282 16 5
By investments and interest accrued thereon	591,006 13 7
By office furniture, fittings, &c.	830 10 0
				£4,869,273 5 4

Profit and Loss Account, from 1st January to 30th June, 1865.

To dividend of 10s. per share on 100,000 shares	£50,000	0	0
To income-tax on above	833	6	8
Balance of profits unappropriated	53,141	15	0
	£103,975	1	8
By Balance, being net profit brought down	£103,975	1	8
	£103,975	1	8

We have compared the above statements with the books of the Association and
examined the securities, and hereby certify to their correctness.

London, 5th July, 1865.

C. J. H. ALLEN, } Auditors.
JOHN WEISE, }

The following resolutions were carried unanimously:—

1. That the Report and accounts now read be received and adopted.
2. That a dividend of 10s. per share, free of income-tax, be declared, and that the
same be payable on and after the 20th inst.
3. In pursuance of a notice forwarded to each proprietor, it is hereby determined
that the following clause be substituted for the 6th of the present Articles of Asso-
ciation of this Company:—
"The Directors may from time to time make calls upon the members in respect
of all moneys unpaid on their shares, as the Directors may think fit, provided that
no call shall exceed the sum of £5 per share, or be made payable within less time
than three months after the payment of the previous call, and provided also that
21 days' notice at least is given of each call; and every member shall be liable to
pay the amount of calls so made to the persons, and at the times and places, ap-
pointed by the Directors, which said persons, times, and places, shall be notified in
the notices to be sent to each member."
4. That an Extraordinary General Meeting to confirm the same be held at the
offices of the Association, on Thursday, the 27th instant, at 12 o'clock at noon
precisely.
5. That the best thanks of this Meeting be given to the Chairman and Directors
for their able management of the Company's affairs.
6. That the thanks of this Meeting be hereby offered to Mr. Barker, Mr. San-
deman, and the other officers of the Association, for the zeal and ability with which
they have discharged the duties of their respective offices.

P. D. HADOW, Chairman.

(Extracted from the Minutes.)

July 13, 1865.

W. C. WINTERBOTTOM, Secretary.

**THE IMPERIAL MERCANTILE CREDIT ASSOCIATION
(LIMITED).**

Capital subscribed, £5,000,000. Paid up, £500,000.

DIRECTORS.

JOHN CHAPMAN, Esq., Chairman.
Xenophon Balli, Esq. Capt. J. Gilbert Johnston.
E. J. Coleman, Esq. G. G. Macpherson, Esq.
Mr. Alderman Dakin. W. Scholesfield, Esq., M.P.
James Dickson, Esq. Sir S. D. Scott, Bart.
P. D. Hadow, Esq. H. D. Seymour, Esq., M.P.
J. O. Hanson, Esq. Joseph Thornton, Esq.
G. F. Holroyd, Esq. Alfred Wilson, Esq.
J. G. Homère, Esq. M. Zariff, Esq.

MANAGERS.—Henry J. Barker, Esq.; and T. Fraser Sandeman, Esq.
SOLICITORS.—Messrs. Ashurst, Morris, & Co.; and Messrs. Edwards & Co.

This Association receives money on deposit for fixed periods; makes advances
on approved securities, negotiates loans, and undertakes general financial business,
No. 27, Lombard-street, E.C. W. C. WINTERBOTTOM, Secretary.

THE LONDON FINANCIAL ASSOCIATION (LIMITED).

CAPITAL.

Subscribed	£2,000,000
Paid-up	600,000
Reserve Fund	85,625

DIRECTORS.

JOHN HACKBLOCK, Esq., Chairman.

John Borradaile, Esq.	William Rennie, Esq.
James Fraser, Esq.	Michel E. Rodocanachi, Esq.
J. E. C. Koch, Esq.	William Turquand, Esq.
Henry Paull, Esq., M.P.	John Walker, Esq.

BANKERS.

Bank of England. | The City Bank. | The Imperial Bank.

MANAGER.—Augustus Wildy, Esq.

SECRETARY.—John Henry Koch, Esq.

OFFICES.—South Sea House, Threadneedle-street, London.

FOURTH HALF-YEARLY REPORT.

Presented at the GENERAL MEETING, held at the Baltic, South Sea House, Threadneedle-street, on Monday, the 17th July, 1865.

The annexed statement of accounts made up to the 30th of June last shows, after deducting expenses of every kind, and rebate of interest calculated at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, a total of £108,943. 1s. to the credit of profit and loss. The above sum includes the balance of £40,063. 8s. 6d. brought forward from last half-year.

The directors recommend the payment of a dividend at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, and a bonus of 10 per cent. per annum, free of income-tax, which together will absorb £45,000, and leave a balance of £62,660. 1s. to be carried forward to next half-year.

The dividend and bonus amount together to £1. 2s. 6d. per share, and will be payable on and after the 18th inst.

THE LONDON FINANCIAL ASSOCIATION (Limited).

Balance Sheet, 30th June, 1865.

Dr.		
To capital called up—viz., £15 per share paid on 40,000 shares ...	£600,000	0 0
To reserve fund, viz., balance at 31st December, 1864 ...	£83,537	10 0
Interest thereon six months, at 5 per cent. ...	2,088	8 9
	85,625	18 9
To liabilities—comprising amounts due on deposit receipts and debentures, interest thereon, and current accounts ...	649,187	9 3
To profit and loss—as per annexed statement ...	117,989	12 10
	£1,452,803	0 10
Cr.		
By assets—viz.,		
Cash at bankers and on deposit ...	£69,121	16 5
Loans, securities, and current accounts ...	1,383,681	4 5
	£1,452,803	0 10

Profit and Loss Account from 1st January to 30th June, 1865.

Dr.		
To current expenses, including directors' and manager's allowances, salaries, advertising, books, stationery, office fittings, rent, and all other charges ...	£13,924	18 0
To balance carried down ...	117,989	12 10
	£131,914	10 10

To dividend at the rate of £5 per cent. per annum on paid-up capital ...	£15,000	0 0
To bonus, at the rate of £10 per cent. per annum on paid-up capital ...	30,000	0 0
	45,000	0 0
To Income-tax ...	1,283	0 0
To balance, being undivided profits, carried to new account ...	62,660	1 0
	£108,943	1 0

Cr.		
By gross profits, viz.:		
Balance of undivided profits brought forward from 31st December, 1864 ...	£40,063	8 6
Amount for half-year ending 30th June, 1865 ...	91,851	2 4
	£131,914	10 10

By balance brought down ...	117,989	12 10
Deduct rebate of interest on loans not due, taken at 5 per cent. per annum ...	9,046	11 10
	£108,943	1 0

By balance carried forward to new account ...	£62,660	1 0
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Audited and found correct,

JOHN BALL, } Auditors.
RICHARD B. WADE, }

It was resolved unanimously—

"That the report and accounts now read be received and adopted."
"That a dividend and bonus of, together, 22s. 6d. per share, being at the rate of 15 per cent. per annum, as recommended by the board, be paid to the shareholders respectively, free of income tax, and that the same be payable on and after the 18th day of July instant."

The cordial thanks of the meeting were given to the directors, manager, and officers of the association for the zealous and efficient manner in which they had discharged their several duties.

Extracted from the Minutes, } JOHN HACKBLOCK, Chairman.
JOHN H. KOCH, Secretary.

July 17th, 1865.

THE LONDON FINANCIAL ASSOCIATION (LIMITED).

CAPITAL.

Subscribed	£2,000,000
Paid up	600,000
Reserve Fund	85,625

DIRECTORS.

JOHN HACKBLOCK, Esq., Chairman.

John Borradaile, Esq.	William Rennie, Esq.
James Fraser, Esq.	Michel E. Rodocanachi, Esq.
J. E. C. Koch, Esq.	William Turquand, Esq.
Henry Paull, Esq., M.P.	John Walker, Esq.

BANKERS.

Bank of England. | City Bank. | The Imperial Bank.

MANAGER.—Augustus Wildy, Esq.

SECRETARY.—John Henry Koch, Esq.

This association receives deposits for fixed periods.

Negotiates Public Loans.

And conducts Monetary and Financial operations generally.

All communications to be addressed to the Manager.

South Sea House, Threadneedle-street, London, E.C.

THE CREDIT FONCIER AND MOBILIER OF ENGLAND (LIMITED).

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL ...	£4,000,000
CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED ...	2,000,000
CAPITAL PAID-UP ...	500,000
RESERVE FUND ...	200,000
DIVIDEND RESERVE FUND ...	70,000

The Right Hon. JAMES STUART WORTLEY, Governor.

JAMES LEVICK, Esq., Merchant, King's Arms-yard, } Deputy Governors.
JAMES NUGENT DANIELL, Esq., London, }

ALBERT GRANT, Esq., M.P., Managing Director.

DIRECTORS.

James Childs, Esq., London.
Alexander Dunbar, Esq., Old Broad-street, London.
Charles Ellis, Esq., Lloyd's.
Adolphe Hakim, Esq. (Messrs. Pinto, Hakim Brothers, & Co.), London.
The Hon. T. C. Haliburton, M.P., Chairman of the Canada Agency Association, London.
William Harrison, Esq. (Messrs. Young, Harrison, & Bevan), Director of the Thames and Mersey Insurance Company.
Richard Stuart Lane, Esq. (Messrs. Lane, Hankey, & Co.), London.
Charles E. Newbon, Esq., London.
Henry Pownall, Esq., J.P., Russell-square, London.
Joseph Mackrill Smith, Esq. (Messrs. Mackrill Smith & Co.), Old Broad-street, London.
Edward Warner, Esq., M.P., London.
John Westmorland, Esq. (Director of the Royal Insurance Company), London.

BANKERS.

The Agra and Masterman's Bank (Limited).
Messrs. Smith, Payne, & Smiths.
The National Bank, London, Dublin, and its branches in Ireland.
The Alliance Bank (Limited), London, Liverpool, and Manchester.

SOLICITORS.

Messrs. Newbon, Evans, & Co., Nicholas-lane, E.C.

BUSINESS TRANSACTED.

This Company negotiates loans for Colonial and Foreign Governments. Co-operates in the financial arrangements of British and other Railways. Makes advances to Corporations, Town Councils, and other public bodies. Negotiates loans for Public Works. Assists in the introduction of Industrial and Commercial undertakings. Makes advances upon approved Stocks, Shares, Bonds, &c. Makes temporary loans upon eligible Freehold and Leasehold Securities.

ALFRED LOWE, Secretary.

London, 17 and 18, Cornhill, June 15th, 1865.

DEBENTURES ISSUED by the CREDIT FONCIER and MOBILIER OF ENGLAND (Limited).

ISSUE OF £500,000 DEBENTURES WITH INTEREST PAYABLE QUARTERLY.

The Directors have decided to issue Debenture Bonds of the Company for the amounts and bearing interest as under, viz.:

In sums of £10, £20, £30, £100, £250, £500, and £1,000, with coupons attached.

INTEREST.

For three years	6 per cent. per annum.
For five years	6½ " " "
For seven years	7 " " "

Interest payable quarterly, viz., on the 30th March, 30th June, 30th September, and 30th December, in each year, at the Company's Bankers.

The distinctive feature in the debentures issued by this Company is their perfect security; the amount of the capital subscribed, paid-up, and uncalled, and the general invested assets of the Company, as well as the large reserve fund, affording the most ample security to the investor.

These debentures are issued payable to bearer, and can therefore pass by simple delivery from hand to hand, without endorsement, and are free from any further stamp duty. They are also issued—to meet the requirements of Trustees and others—transferable by deed only, to be duly registered in the Company's books in the names of the investors or their assigns.

Forms of application can be obtained of the Secretary, to whom all communications must be addressed.—By order of the Court,

ALFRED LOWE, Secretary.

London, 17 and 18, Cornhill, June 15, 1865.

DEPOSITS RECEIVED by the CREDIT FONCIER and MOBILIER OF ENGLAND (Limited).

RATES FOR MONEY ON DEPOSIT.

This Company receives Money on Deposit in sums of £10 and upwards, at the undermentioned rates, from this day until further notice, viz.:

At fourteen days' notice ...	3 per cent. per annum.
At one month's notice ...	3½ per cent. per annum.

FOR FIXED PERIODS OF—

Not less than 3 months and up to 6 months ...	4 per cent. per annum.
Beyond 6 months and up to 9 months ...	4½ per cent. per annum.
Beyond 9 months and up to 12 months ...	5 per cent. per annum.
Beyond 12 months and up to 24 months ...	5½ per cent. per annum.

Forms of Application can be obtained of the Secretary, to whom all communications must be addressed.

By order of the Court,

ALFRED LOWE, Secretary.

17 and 18, Cornhill, London, June 15th, 1865.

SIX PER CENT. DEBENTURES.

THE SUBMARINE TELEGRAPH COMPANY, INCORPORATED BY ROYAL CHARTER.

DIRECTORS.

SIR JAMES CARMICHAEL, BART., Chairman.

Lord de Mauley.	Henry Moor, Esq., M.P.
Francis Edwards, Esq.	C. Sanderson, Esq.
Samuel Gurney, Esq., M.P.	G. Scamell, Esq.
Capt. J. Grant, late R.A.	Right Hon. James Stuart Wortley.

The Directors are prepared to receive applications for the Debentures of this Company, to replace those falling due. The amount of the Debentures is restricted to one-third of the Capital; the interest payable on this sum Half-yearly, is £5,280 per annum, and forms the first charge on the Revenue of the Company, the gross amount of which is now £50,000 per annum. The Debentures are issued for five years, in sums of £50 and upwards, and are secured by the whole of the property, effects, and revenues of the Company, which include a Reserve Fund equal to one-sixth of the Debenture debt; by a special Resolution, one-tenth of the Revenue is added Half-yearly to the Reserve Fund. The Company has seven cables in connection with the Continent, the exclusive Concessions for carrying Telegraph messages until 1889, and a Revenue which has increased from £30,000 to £50,000 per annum, since the original Debentures were issued in 1861.

By order,

S. M. CLARE, Secretary.

53, Threadneedle-street, London, E.C.

BARRETT & CO'S MONTHLY STOCK, SHARE AND MONETARY CIRCULAR contains a list of the most safe and desirable Investments of the day paying 5 to 12 per cent. free from risk. Published Monthly, Gratis, on applying at 9, Spring-gardens, Charing-cross.

DUBLIN INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION, 1865.UNDER THE SPECIAL PATRONAGE OF HER MAJESTY
THE QUEEN.

THE EXHIBITION IS OPEN EVERY WEEK DAY.

ADMISSION, ONE SHILLING;

ON SATURDAYS, TWO SHILLINGS AND SIXPENCE.

RAILWAY ARRANGEMENTS.

Return Tickets, available for one month, are issued between London and the principal railway stations in England and Scotland and Dublin, at an abatement of fifteen per cent. below the ordinary return ticket rate, the holder being entitled to purchase at the same time at the railway station a ticket giving him admission six times to the Exhibition for 4s. 6d., being twenty-five per cent. under the ordinary rate.

Excursion Trains will be organised to run fortnightly, or oftener if necessary, at very moderate fares, not exceeding 21s., from London to Dublin and back, and from other places in like proportion. The Ticket will be good for a fortnight, and at the same time the holder will be entitled to obtain at the same railway station for one shilling a ticket giving him admission twice to the Exhibition.

On the Irish Railways, also, Excursion Tickets will be issued at greatly reduced fares, affording unusual facilities for visiting the celebrated scenery of the country.

HENRY PARKINSON, Sec. and Comptroller.

ATLANTIC AND GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY.—

NOTICE TO BONDHOLDERS.—In conformity with the terms on which the Second Mortgage Bonds of the Pennsylvania and New York sections of this Railway were issued to the public, the FIRST ANNUAL DRAWING of 4 per cent. on the gross amount of these Bonds took place at the office of Messrs. E. F. Satterthwaite & Co., in presence of the undersigned notary, when the following Bonds were drawn:

PENNSYLVANIA DIVISION.

38 Bonds of \$1,000 each.

5	106	200	339	510	652	776	873
11	139	210	405	516	727	783	884
16	160	239	408	519	735	804	913
36	187	264	476	528	760	810	946
39	198	283	480	624	765		

20 Bonds of \$100 each.

954	1003	1166	1200	1262	1363	1407	1433
982	1039	1179	1237	1333	1392	1425	1449
1001	1054	1198	1249				

NEW YORK DIVISION.

16 Bonds of \$1,000 each.

29	100	121	137	168	242	319	390
94	119	135	166	227	311	332	395

24 Bonds of \$500 each.

1433	1454	1509	1554	1582	1623	1731	1785
1435	1499	1548	1584	1593	1656	1733	1838
1448	1500	1549	1565	1607	1698	1736	1977

40 Bonds of \$100 each.

422	494	652	831	1060	1164	1253	1312
428	527	686	842	1070	1200	1254	1317
434	528	725	906	1098	1208	1261	1361
473	598	767	935	1126	1214	1297	1371
483	618	830	997	1127	1252	1293	1387

Present—W. GRAIN, Notary Public, 31, Threadneedle-street, London, 6th July, 1865.

THE JOINT STOCK DISCOUNT COMPANY (LIMITED).

6 and 7, Nicholas-lane, Lombard-street, London.

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